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Volume 29

MAY, 1945

Number 191

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A series of articles on the effective administration and practices in secondary schools that are operating under the impact of war.

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*A Department of Secondary Education of the
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**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

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WALTER E. HESS, Managing Editor

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Criteria for the Determination of Effective Secondary-School Management

S. HARRY BAKER

Administrative Principal, Langley Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

SINCE EDUCATION is considered "one of the largest business enterprises in every community and directly influences the daily lives of the great majority of the inhabitants," it is logical to assume that such an enterprise should be managed in a businesslike manner and this fact alone behooves every school principal to extend an effort to do so.

It is significant to note that many school principals have undertaken their duties without much training in the theory and practice of management. This has generated numerous important problems. Clumsy, time consuming, and inefficient management practices are all too prevalent.

The principal has a threefold job, *i.e.*, management, public relations, and supervision. As management problems are usually more pressing than either of the other two, inefficient management practices greatly reduce the amount of time which the principal might otherwise devote efficiently to all three jobs.

The author² has felt for many years that much of value could be learned about school management by an examination of management practices in business and industry. It is also felt that the establishment of more definite principles in the field of school management would do much to improve it.

CRITERION ONE

Good school management is characterized by a clear-cut delegation of authority, definite assignment of commensurate responsibilities, and a full understanding on the part of all concerned of the rewards and coercions to be used.

Of course this criterion could be applied with equal force to most management situations. No doubt one could find many illustrations of its violation in government, business, and industry. However, it is possible that it has been violated in school management more frequently than elsewhere. It would appear that indefinite jurisdictional limits, overlapping authority, and inadequate systems of reward and coercion have played an important part in preventing school management from rendering its full service.

A list of specifications bearing out the above criterion follows.

Specification 1. The principal should have a clear understanding of his

¹Cooperative study of Secondary School Standards, *How to Evaluate a Secondary School*—1940. Edition, Washington, D. C., 1939.

²These criteria were prepared for THE BULLETIN, and are a portion of a larger study made in the School of Education, George Washington University, Washington, D. C., under the direction of Dean James Harold Fox.

functions as delegated to him by his immediate superior officers, the terms of his contract of employment, and the state laws to which he is subject.

Not infrequently superintendents fail to define clearly the functions and duties of school principals. Sometimes the contract of employment is indefinite, omits important provisions, or includes irrelevant matter. Many principals do not know the state laws under which they work nor have they kept abreast of court decisions involving the interpretation of these laws. Copies of the statutes concerning the school law of the state are not found in the offices of many principals nor are they readily available to the principal in any nearby location.

Specification 2. The duties of assistant principals should be clearly defined and their working relationships specified as definitely as possible.

While assistant principals should be ready to assume special duties and responsibilities from time to time in order to relieve an overburdened principal, the major part of their work should grow out of a definite and fully understood delegation of authority and responsibility by the principal. Such delegation should be accompanied by maximum freedom of action subject, of course, to accountability for results.

Specification 3. Department heads or convenors¹ should understand their teaching, managerial, and supervisory responsibilities.

Supervisory responsibilities need particular clarification in many situations. Work relationships with general supervisors and principals need to be clearly defined. Responsibilities of the department head in connection with schedule making, the selection of textbooks, construction of the budget, and requisitioning of supplies need to be definitely stated.

Specification 4. Teachers serving part time as administrative assistants should have their administrative duties clearly stated.

Since learning involves a great many variable factors, the centralization of control over teaching tends to be relatively difficult and somewhat inefficient. This characteristic of the educational task makes necessary a considerable decentralization of management duties. Indeed, every teacher must, in a well-run school, assume a considerable number of administrative responsibilities. In addition, certain teachers with special training, e. g., guidance counsellors, deans, grade advisers, etc., will need to assume numerous managerial functions. As indicated for other administrative assistants, these people should be given as much latitude as is consistent with the fixing of responsibility in the discharge of their work. The test of the principal's leadership here is not how good he is at "bossing" but how little "bossing" he has to do.

Specification 5. Teachers should know, within the limits imposed by the instructional task, what is expected of them in connection with classroom

¹This position is also variously called Subject Field Chairman or Local Building Subject Department Chairman.

*teaching, home-room direction and instruction, extra-classroom sponsorship, administrative duties, committee work, and public relations.*⁴

Teachers should understand the instructional responsibilities imposed by a democratically constructed school philosophy. The purposes of home-room instruction and the importance of the home room in the achievement of the broader purposes of the school should be well understood and appreciated. The role of extra-classroom activities should be likewise understood. If management is to expect satisfactory administrative and clerical work from its teachers, it, in turn, must be definite in giving directions and must repeat its requests frequently enough to secure reports and actions in due time. Committee assignments need to be as definite as other teacher assignments and limitations on committee work need to be enforced. Too often the public relations responsibilities of teachers are vague and indefinite. It should be understood, however, that the nature of the instructional task requires that teachers have great freedom of action in the determination of the means to be used in meeting their assigned responsibilities.

Specification 6. The duties of all members of the office personnel should be clearly defined.

Such routine procedures as recording daily attendance, admitting pupils after absences, receiving incoming telephone calls, acting as switchboard operator for the school, receiving and giving directions to pupils, teachers, and visitors who desire to see the administrative officers, doing stenographic work, keeping the records of the school and the office files, and serving as registrar should be clearly outlined and defined in order that all clerks who are to perform them may be able to systematize office administration and conserve the time of the administrative officers.

Specification 7. The head custodian of a large high-school building, the engineer, and the custodial assistants must know definitely their responsibilities in connection with adequate maintenance and repairs.

Sometimes the entire responsibility is placed upon the head custodian who, without training, delegates it very inefficiently. Frequently the line of authority is divided between the superintendent of maintenance and the principal, resulting in confusion. Often the relations of custodians to teachers and pupils is left largely to the imagination.

Specification 8. The responsibility and authority of the school nurse, school doctor, school psychiatrist, and other special assistants should be clearly defined.

Special assistants do not always understand their functions in relation

⁴Public relations as used in this study is concerned with a continuous and frank interpretation of the school and its problems to the public to the end that more intelligent and more complete co-operation may exist between the school and its public.

to the broad aims of the school. Co-operation between teachers and special assistants is often less than one would desire.

Specification 9. Definition of duties and responsibilities should not only be made clear to the persons responsible for carrying them out, but should be clearly understood by all co-workers.

Lack of understanding of the responsibilities of fellow workers often leads to poor co-operation, impossible requests, and misunderstanding of motives. Complete teamwork is not possible unless every member of the team knows the functions of every other member.

Specification 10. Pupils must have a clear understanding of their duties and responsibilities in connection with student self-government.

If the student council is to function effectively, it must know the limits of its jurisdiction and the conditions under which it must work. Other administrative officers and teachers must also understand these relationships.

CRITERION TWO

Management is a service to instruction. Its functions and, therefore, its organization and operating procedures are determined by the purposes of the school and its educational philosophy.

Schools exist to facilitate learning growth and development in children. Their main task is selection, initiation, and direction of learning experiences adapted to the individual needs of the pupils. Because of the sensitivity of pupil-teacher relationships and the complex nature of the learning process, it is probably more important to be guided by the service concept of management in school organization than in industrial organization. School management practices can rarely be justified in terms of managerial convenience or simplicity of organization; they must chiefly be evaluated in terms of their effect upon instruction.

Specification 1. The master schedule should be constructed in such manner as to serve the needs of a maximum number of students. It seeks to make possible provision for the greatest individual development of each pupil.

Administrative convenience is too often the chief criterion in schedule construction. Teacher preferences are sometimes allowed to interfere with the satisfaction of pupil need. It needs to be remembered that schools exist not for the purposes of management nor for the employment of teachers but for the education of pupils.

Specification 2. Home rooms¹ should be organized to facilitate the achievement of their objectives in connection with orientation, guidance, student government, and other assigned activities. This involves the assignment of

¹Home rooms as used in this study, refer to classes held during specially assigned full-length periods. They are not to be confused with short opening and closing periods devoted to such administrative matters as attendance, tardiness, home reports, and announcements.

adequate time; use of the most fruitful classification of pupils, and the provision of adequate space and equipment.

Home-room instruction makes heavy demands upon teacher skill, ingenuity, and effort. Frequently the type of organization used adds to these burdens. If home rooms are to serve their purposes most effectively, management must discover ways of lightening these teacher burdens.

Specification 3. Home-room activities should be protected. Invasion of home-room time by school activities which do not contribute to the established purposes of the home rooms should not be permitted. Only for exceptional reasons should students be excused from home-room activities.

Home-room instruction is not likely to be effective unless it is recognized to be as important in the achievement of the school's purposes as an equal amount of classroom instruction. In some schools management permits repeated invasion of home-room time and frequently excuses pupils from home-room instruction in such way as to leave the impression that home rooms, after all, are not very important. It is better to abolish them entirely than to allow this condition to exist.

Specification 4. Management should provide home-room teachers with as much assistance as possible in planning learning activities, handling records, counselling pupils, and contacting homes. Most important of all is the development of an appreciation of the purposes and values of the home room.

Most teachers have had very little training in home-room procedures. Nowhere is supervisory help needed more urgently. Management should see that it is provided.

Specification 5. The assignment of pupils to classes should be of such nature as to enable teachers to make maximum provisions for individual differences and to make the best use of appropriate teaching procedures.

Adequate provision for individual differences is one of the major problems of the school. Rarely are teachers able to differentiate instruction in terms of individual differences to the extent that they desire. Skillful management in the assignment of pupils to classes can do much to help teachers cope with this problem.

Specification 6. Classroom time should be protected. Administrative announcements should not interrupt instruction. Except for very urgent reasons, teachers should not be called to the telephone while engaged in instruction. Visitors to the classroom should not be permitted to interfere with instruction. Substitution of other learning activities, e. g., assembly programs, which result in a decrease in classroom time, must be justified in terms of their educational values.

Schools exist only for the purpose of initiating, guiding, directing, and evaluating learning. The heart of the school is, therefore, the classroom.

Management exists only to service instruction. One might reasonably infer then that management is inefficient if it permits classroom time to be invaded.

Specification 7. Management should assign teaching loads that promote maximum teaching efficiency. This involves careful consideration of such factors as the total number of different pupils taught, the number of preparations per day, and non-classroom teaching assignments.

It is unfortunately true that some teachers do much more work than other teachers. It is obviously difficult for management to equalize teacher loads. Tenure provisions and the natural desire of management to assign responsibilities to the capable tend to overwork some teachers and permit others to do less than their full share. Nevertheless, efficient management must constantly strive to correct this condition.

Specification 8. Management should assist teachers to carry out their public relations functions by providing a continuous flow of information needed. (Facts concerning school purposes, organization of instruction, extraclassroom activities, costs, etc.)

Public relations programs in schools have often been organized for the efficient dissemination of information but without an adequate supply of information to be disseminated. Such organizations are of little value. Management must provide for the continuous collection of factual material and the processing of this material to make it usable in public relations programs. It must likewise arrange to have the finished product flow continuously to teachers and other agents in the public relations program. If teachers are to serve efficiently in the field of public relations, they must be informed.

Specification 9. Management should provide classroom teachers with adequate supervisory help in the discharge of their guidance functions.

It is assumed in this study that all guidance will not be assigned to specialists—that all personnel must share in the guidance program. Since guidance involves the use of specialized skills, classroom teachers will need supervisory help in the performance of their guidance responsibilities. Management should see that it is provided.

Specification 10. Management should provide guidance services in such way as to improve instruction.

Guidance officers should interrupt classroom instruction as little as possible. There are times when the solution of guidance problems must take precedence over classroom instruction. But, on the whole, guidance officers should recognize that their work should not interfere with the work of the other members of the school team. Guidance should promote independence of thought and problem-solving ability that will make classroom instruction easier.

Specification 11. Management should see to it that committee assignments do not seriously interfere with instruction.

Able teachers should be protected from overburdening committee assignments. Committee reports should not interfere with lesson preparation.

Specification 12. Management should constantly assist teachers to interpret in a practical way the educational philosophy and purpose of the school.

References, committees, in-service training, and other means should be used to provide teachers with many illustrations of learning activities consonant with the school's philosophy and purposes.

CRITERION THREE

School management must reflect the unique nature of the educational task and the characteristics of the personnel involved.

The process of guiding learning growth and development differs markedly from manufacturing and business processes. The raw materials (pupils) cannot be standardized. Many of their individual differences defy removal. Nor would it be wise, for the most part, to remove them if it were possible to do so. Teaching, therefore, involves endless adaptation of learning activities to individual pupil needs and varying community situations. This demands skillful human engineering on the part of teachers; which, in turn, makes necessary a highly trained professional personnel.

Specification 1. Management must recognize the unique characteristics of the personnel with which it is concerned.

The demands of their training and experience tend to make them individualists and tend to encourage the assumption of broad responsibilities. School management must recognize this.

Specification 2. School management must recognize that public opinion needs to be given careful consideration in both the planning and execution of school policies.

This does not imply subservience to public opinion. It merely recognizes the fact that schools are social institutions and cannot be effectively managed from an "ivory tower." Since, in this country, schools serve a democratic form of society, they should not merely permit but encourage public participation in school planning—particularly as it concerns the broad aims and purposes of the school.

Specification 3. Management should recognize that the school is only one of a number of co-operating social institutions servicing the community. Provision should, therefore, be made for co-operation with other social institutions in the community. Provisions should likewise be made for the control and adjustment of conflicts that must arise where relatively independent institutions have overlapping jurisdictions.

A high school cannot operate in isolation. It needs the active support and help of the home, the church, various youth organizations, and other community agencies. Likewise, it is under obligation to reciprocate by assisting

other social institutions in the community to do their work. Schools ought not to try to dominate the social scene but should exercise a co-ordinating leadership in all matters of an educational nature. Schools should be willing to serve as junior partners in non-educational community efforts. Other social institutions should recognize the school's obligation to lead in educational matters.

Specification 4. Management controls must recognize the intangible nature of many of the outcomes of the educational process.

Unlike the outcomes of industrial processes, education must be concerned with such difficult-to-measure products as co-operativeness, tolerance, and self-reliance.

Specification 5. Management should recognize the essential unity of the educational task.

Teamwork involves maximum co-operation and singleness of purpose in the achievement of goals and objectives. Conflicting purposes and too rigid divisions of content reduce teaching efficiency.

CRITERION FOUR

Management should provide for the kinds of organization and procedures needed to solve with optimum efficiency the various kinds of problems with which it has to deal.

School management problems differ markedly in detail from management problems in other fields. Organization and procedures must be adapted to meet the specific school situations. Descriptions of proven best practices in connection with these school problems constitute a considerable portion of the literature in secondary-school administration.

Specification 1. Provision should be made for an adequate administrative and supervisory staff.

Too often management suffers because it is understaffed. Administrative loads in large high schools tend to be much greater than similar loads in government and industry. High-school principals are chronically short of clerical assistance. Few schools have a sufficient number of assistant principals.

Specification 2. The division of duties between members of the management staff should be determined by educational objectives and a scale of values consistent with the philosophy of the school. Such division of duties should recognize the particular qualifications of the personnel concerned.

Too often the principal retains for himself what he considers to be the more important administrative functions, delegating to his assistants the more uninteresting and troublesome routines. This frequently leads to almost complete preoccupation of assistant principals with matters of attendance and discipline. This tendency to centralize control of student behavior in the principal's office promotes what is sometimes called "good" manage-

ment from a statistical viewpoint but often handicaps the development of powers of self-discipline in students and encourages them to shirk their responsibilities as school citizens. It is conceivable that a good division of responsibilities in some schools would place the main burden of management upon an assistant principal, leaving the principal free to devote a large part of his time to public relations and supervision. In other schools this division of responsibilities might well be reversed. In view of the fact that supervision, guidance, and provision of adequate facilities for instruction are so neglected in many schools, one may well question the large amount of time devoted to disciplinary matters by the principal's office.

Specification 3. Management should provide for proper balancing of the time of personnel consistent with the duties to be performed.

Problems in management execution, e. g., arranging for transportation of a football team, making arrangements for an assembly, etc., tend to invade the time that should be devoted to supervision, management planning, and public relations. It is usually possible to postpone consideration of problems in these other areas; but problems in management execution press for immediate solution. Some relief from this situation might be achieved by: (1) reducing the burden on management execution through more efficient procedures in management planning, (2) devising more efficient procedures in management execution, and (3) more careful budgeting of administrative time.

Specification 4. Management should provide for periodic re-examination of the curriculum to enable adaptation to the changing needs of the community and the pupil population.

Some compromise must be found between curriculum revision procedures that result in continuous change and do-nothing attitudes that result in a static curriculum. Too rapid change of curriculum materials places a heavy burden upon instruction and frequently reduces its efficiency.

Specification 5. Management should provide for the careful planning of policies controlling extra-classroom activities, for the efficient execution of these policies and for the necessary controls over them.

Extra-classroom activities should be considered an integral part of the learning experiences provided by the curriculum. They need the same careful management as is provided for classroom instruction.

Specification 6. Management should provide for adequate control over instructional outcomes.

The outcomes of instruction are hard to evaluate since many of the more important ones are intangible and reach fruition many years after the learning is experienced. Much skill is required of management in the use of testing procedures, follow-up studies, and the sampling of opinion in

the evaluation of the outcomes of instruction. Nevertheless, without such evaluation, management planning is hopelessly handicapped.

Specification 7: Management should make adequate provision for the satisfactory control and direction of desirable pupil behavior.

The school cannot afford to take a narrow view of the control of pupil behavior. It is not merely concerned with obtaining satisfactory behavior while the pupil is in school; it must seek to develop acceptable behavior in all the social situations in which the pupil finds himself. This probably indicates the decentralization of control over tardiness, absenteeism, and discipline and emphasis upon the development of student self-control. The principal can never escape the ultimate decision in serious disciplinary cases.

Specification 8. Management should make provision for the efficient requisitioning, handling, and utilization of school supplies and equipment.

Management practices should be determined primarily by instructional needs and secondarily by commonly-used business practices. Not infrequently school supplies and equipment are handled with efficient smoothness from the standpoint of business practice but fail to satisfy instructional needs because of bad timing, inaccurate forecasts, or specifications not in line with needs.

Specification 9. Management should provide the organization needed to assist in budget planning and should set up suitable procedures for the administration of the part of the budget concerned, after its approval.

Budgetary items ought to grow out of instructional needs. Teachers ought, therefore, to originate a great many of the budgetary proposals. If the budget is revised before adoption, teachers should likewise be consulted through proper administrative channels concerning needed changes. After the budget is approved, management must see that it is efficiently executed.

Specification 10. Management should provide for the efficient planning, operation, and control of auxiliary services under its jurisdiction.

Frequently the school cafeteria, the program of health services, the direction of out-of-school recreational activities, and other auxiliary services fall within the jurisdiction of school management. Since these services are not primarily school functions it may be argued that school management should not be responsible for them, particularly since school management functions are usually understaffed. However, as long as these auxiliary services are assigned to school management, they should be managed efficiently.

Specification 11. Management should provide organization and procedures needed to gather and transmit the information needed by the superintendent's office promptly and efficiently.

High-school management must share in educational planning for the entire system and must co-operate effectively in the functions of management execution assigned to the superintendent's office. It must also assist the superintendent's office in management control.

Announcing . . .

New Curriculum Materials

ESSENTIAL and important curriculum materials, interestingly illustrated, on many aspects of consumership for all secondary-school students and teachers, are and will be available. These curriculum materials were prepared through research and experiment during the past three years by a special staff, under the direction of Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Director, and Dr. Fred T. Wilhelms, Associate Director, and will be available to schools from the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

A single copy of the first six units will be sent at a later date, probably in September, 1945, without charge to all members in good standing of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Single complimentary copies of the other units, when published, will also be sent to members.

Those who are especially interested in receiving the first units off the press, before the free mailing to members in September, may order any of the first six units now at the list prices. It is expected that all six units will be available no later than June 15, 1945.

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School and College Credit for Military Experience

A RECOMMENDED PROGRAM FOR GRANTING SCHOOL AND COLLEGE CREDIT FOR MILITARY EXPERIENCE

PAUL E. ELICKER

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

FRANCIS J. BROWN

American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

THIS SET of questions and answers summarizes recommended procedures in the awarding of credit by secondary schools and colleges to men and women in the Armed Forces.

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Question 1: Why is the question of credit for military experience important?

ANSWER: Approximately one third of the men and women in the Armed Forces attended but have not been graduated from high school or secondary school; another one fourth are high-school graduates but have not attended college; one in ten has attended but not been graduated from college. Under the encouragement of government and the educational institutions, many of these service men and women will wish to continue their education. Through the educational provisions of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, popularly termed the GI Bill of Rights (for all veterans with a discharge other than dishonorable) and Public Law 16, 78th Congress (for veterans with service-incurred injuries or disabilities) and Public Law 113, 78th Congress for civilians and veterans not eligible for either of these acts, who have been injured in "war industry or otherwise," veterans of World War II can go back to school, with government financial assistance, for varying lengths of time, depending on their age, length of service, and other factors. Copies of these laws may be obtained from members of the Congress or from the Superintendent of Public Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

Question 2: Should decisions regarding credit for military experience be postponed until the close of the present war?

ANSWER: No. Service men and women are being discharged daily from the Armed Forces as casualties and for other reasons. Some of these

¹Single copies may be obtained free on request. Quantity orders: 2-25 copies, 10 cents per copy; 50 copies, \$2.50; 100 copies or more, \$4.50 per 100 copies. Place order with National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Shipping charges prepaid if payment accompanies order.

are now entering educational institutions and are applying for credit. Many still within the Armed Forces are applying for school and college credit as a basis for planning their further military and civilian education and as a basis for continuing their civilian education while in service. Also, it is sometimes easier for military personnel while still on active duty to get an accurate, documented statement of their in-service training than it is for veterans to assemble such a record.

Question 3: What aspects of military experience have potential educational value?

ANSWER: Military experience with potential educational values include:

1. Training programs varying from basic and recruit training to highly technical training offered in Specialist Schools both within the Armed Forces and under military jurisdiction in civilian educational institutions.
2. Work experience in the many tasks involving technical knowledge and skill.
3. Off-duty or "thinking-time" education of a voluntary nature through correspondence courses, class instruction, extensive library service, and many auditory and visual aids.
4. Participation in the duty-time Army Education Program now being planned for inactive theaters and during the post-hostilities period and any program developed by the Navy to meet comparable needs.
5. General experience gained through travel, observation, and an understanding of the peoples of the world.

Question 4: What numbers are involved in these educational programs?

ANSWER: All of the millions of men and women in the Armed Forces will have had basic or recruit training; approximately fifty per cent will have attended one or more Specialist Schools; over a million are already availing themselves of the off-duty educational programs; many will have participated in the post-hostilities education programs.

Question 5: Why is it unsound to give blanket credit for military experience?

ANSWER: Blanket credit is unfair to the individual who seems initially to be favored by it. Due to the wide variety of experience and training, the educational value of military experience to the individual will vary accordingly. Credit should be given on the basis of educational achievement acquired by the individual rather than time spent.

Question 6: Is blanket credit ever justified?

ANSWER: Yes, to a limited extent. The basic or recruit training which all men and women take include sound educational values. It is recommended that it not exceed eight semester hours on the college level nor more than one semester (four credits or two units) on the secondary-school level and

that even such credit be withheld until the service man or woman has completed at least the basic or recruit training.

Question 7: What alternative procedure is available instead of blanket credit?

ANSWER: The United States Armed Forces Institute, an official agency of the War and Navy Departments, makes available to all service personnel a standard form (USAFI Form No. 47—Revised September 1944—*Application for Credit for Educational Achievements During Military Service*) on which the individual service man or woman may make application for academic credit. This form was developed in co-operation with representatives of schools, institutions of higher education, and educational organizations. Its usefulness has been demonstrated through practical use in schools and colleges. This application states the applicant's civilian education background, off-duty educational courses taken, service schools attended, service jobs or billets held. It is certified by an officer and mailed directly to the school or college where the applicant is seeking to establish credit.

Question 8: How can civilian educational institutions evaluate military service school courses in terms of their own curricula?

ANSWER: The American Council on Education has prepared a Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services. The Guide describes and gives credit recommendations regarding credit for practically all of the service schools and training courses given by the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard. Credit recommendations for USAFI courses and work done in the off-duty classes and the post-hostilities education program are also included. The Guide is being published in loose-leaf form so that it can be conveniently expanded. Some 900 pages were published in 1944 and an additional 500 pages are planned for 1945. Copies should be ordered from George P. Tuttle, 363 Administration Building (W), Urbana, Illinois. The subscription rate for 1944 was \$2 and there will be an additional \$3 for 1945.

Question 9: Are all schools and colleges obligated to accept these credit recommendations?

ANSWER: No. They are suggestions for amounts and kinds of credit for different school levels. Each school or college will make its own decision as to the credit it grants.

Question 10: Is there any way of measuring objectively in relation to the formal curriculum the work done or the educational level attained by service personnel?

ANSWER: Yes, three types of tests have been prepared for the United States Armed Forces Institute:

1. *End-of-Course Tests*, indicating degree of success in completing a course offered through USAFI and given regularly to students in courses for

which tests are available without special requests. These are also used in many group classes.

2.* *Subject or Field Tests* measuring the competence of the individual in a subject field such as English.

3.* *General Educational Development Tests* showing the general level of educational attainment of the individual such as "high-school graduation" or "second half sophomore year of college."

Question 11: How can the school or college know whether or not an applicant for credit has had these tests?

ANSWER: The applicant states on his credit application form what USAFI tests he has taken.

Question 12: How can the school or college granting credit request the various services to have these tests administered to the applicant?

ANSWER: USAFI Form No. 47 provides space for the educational institution to request USAFI to administer to the applicant the test or tests that the institution believes would be helpful in determining the kind and amount of credit the applicant should be granted. Test results will be reported directly to the school or college requesting them. The USAFI cannot administer tests to discharged personnel. The American Council on Education has established a Veterans Testing Service at 6010 Dorchester Avenue, Chicago, 37, Illinois. Veterans can arrange by mail to have tests administered for a small fee.

Question 13: Can the educational institution obtain copies of the tests prepared by the Institute?

ANSWER: Equivalent forms of subject tests and tests of general educational development can be purchased from the Co-operative Test Service of the American Council on Education, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York 23, New York. The secondary school or college can use these tests to prepare its own forms for the more effective interpretation of the reports of the Institute. Equivalent forms of *End-of-Course Tests* are not available.

Question 14: Has the plan for sound educational credit as outlined above been generally accepted by educational authorities?

ANSWER: Yes, it has been officially approved by all of the regional accrediting associations of secondary schools and colleges, by a number of state departments of education, by almost all colleges and universities, and by many secondary schools. A study of the first seven thousand applicants for credit processed through USAFI shows that more than 98 per cent of applicants for high-school credit and more than 96 per cent of applicants for college credit were granted credit for educational experience in the Armed

*Designed for accreditation and guidance purposes and given only by specific arrangements with the U. S. Armed Forces Institute. An equivalent form is available for use by schools and colleges (See Question 13.).

Forces. More than 28 per cent got high-school diplomas, and almost 20 per cent got college diplomas for work while on active duty in the service.

Question 15: Why are credit applicants now sent directly from the applicant to the school or college of his choice instead of being transmitted through USAFI headquarters?

ANSWER: It was found that in the vast majority of cases the only assistance needed from USAFI by the schools and colleges was descriptions of the service courses. This information is now available in the American Council on Education Guide. (See question #8) As the number of credit applications increased it became apparent that clearing each one physically through USAFI headquarters would be needlessly time-consuming.

Question 16: To what extent should schools and colleges give specific recommendations for further study?

ANSWER: There is space provided on that section of the credit application (Form 47 USAFI) which is to be returned to the applicant for the educational institution to make recommendations for further study. These recommendations will be extremely helpful to the individual who wishes to continue his civilian education while still in service. A careful study of the USAFI catalog will show what courses would be most helpful to the applicant in attaining his educational goal. It is suggested that such recommendations be very specific and be for courses and materials readily available to the applicant.

Question 17: Can a veteran submit a USAFI Form 47 for application for credit?

ANSWER: No. These applications can be used only by military personnel on active duty. Veterans will usually apply for school or college credit by writing to the educational institution of their choice and inclosing with their letter a certified copy of their *Separation Record* received at the time of discharge.

Question 18: Where can further information regarding the educational programs of the Armed Forces and accreditation procedures be procured?

ANSWER:

1. For information concerning the education programs of the Armed Services, write:

a. Regarding USAFI courses, to the Commandant, United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison 3, Wisconsin;

b. Regarding other Army education programs, to the Army Education Branch, Information and Education Division, Army Service Forces, Washington 25, D. C.;

c. Regarding the Navy education programs, to the Educational Services Section, Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Washington 25, D. C.;

d. Regarding the Marine Corps educational programs, to the Education Sub-section, Special Services Branch, U. S. Marine Corps, Washington 25, D. C.; and

e. Regarding the Coast Guard educational programs, to the U. S. Coast Guard Headquarters, Washington 25, D. C.

2. For information concerning the American Council on Education Guide, or for service courses not included in it, write to George P. Tuttle, 363 Administration Building (W), Urbana, Illinois.

3. For further information about accreditation procedures, write:

a. Regarding college credit, to the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.;

b. Regarding junior-college credit, to the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1201 Nineteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.; and

c. Regarding high-school credit, to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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Changes the War May Bring to High Schools*

IVAN H. LINDER

Principal, Senior High School, Palo Alto, California

WHAT are going to be the ultimate effects of the war on the high school? There are good reasons for believing that changes in education growing out of the war will be registered in the high school with more immediate and telling effect than in any other part of our public educational system, for the taking by the war services of so many youth immediately out of our high schools has turned the full force of opinion on the high-school program.

Of course we shall not be able to make all the changes proposed as a result of our experience in war service or in production activities related to the war. Nor should we be altogether on the defensive as to what the war has disclosed that the high schools have been doing. A Federal inspector for war plants in eleven Western states representing the War Manpower Commission said recently, "Why don't you high-school people step forward and insist on your fair share of credit for the adaptability of young men and women trained in your schools? Their very resourcefulness, even when they lack specific training for their tasks, has been one of the major influences in our phenomenal war production."

War service has brought out qualities in many of our youth, however, which high-school education never even discovered. Every high-school principal receives letters from boys in the Services giving eloquent testimony to this fact. It should be clear to all of us that, unless the high-school staff takes the initiative in some definite postwar improvements to correct the deficiencies of our educational program, other groups with less understanding but more determination will undertake this task, even if in a no more helpful manner than spreading discontent with the present program.

Furthermore, a discussion of the improvement of the high school need not lead us off into a foggy atmosphere streaked by unmanageable concepts. The average high-school staff has the ability and the resources of group thought to bring about improvements in the high-school program that will go even beyond those suggested by our war-time experience.

THE PROBABLE CHANGES

There is no general feeling of contentment among high-school staff members with the present program and product of the high school. Improvements are being made constantly. But since we all are more or less involved

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in what the late Justice Holmes called the mosquito swarm of things to do, these improvements unfortunately tend to be largely confined to altering the particulars of machinery and courses. What is being revealed by the war, as for instance the extraordinary success of some of our young men who disclosed almost no promise in high school, should lead us to re-examine the whole pattern of high-school education.

It is true that if the members of the faculty are to work together on an institutional program into which the efforts of each may fit more significantly, we shall have to provide more time than we have been setting aside for curriculum purposes. Beyond this, there must be developed a different point of view than usually obtains when group discussion of general subject values tends to divide us into almost as many camps as there are separate subject and service fields. But if every high-school faculty would devote periodic meetings to a consideration of some of the strengths and weaknesses of the program as revealed by the experience of our young men and women in the war service, this could provide the basis for some significant postwar planning.

The following are typical of the questions with which the faculty should approach postwar planning for the high school.

1. What is the high-school teaching its youth by reason of the manner in which it involves them in its group life?
2. Is there sufficient balance between organization and control on the one hand and freedom and initiative on the other so that the influence of the high school as a whole is constructive for the great majority of youth?
3. Where can we look for the peacetime equivalent to the motivation to learning provided by the war service, the effectiveness of which is disclosed by the success of former students we were unable to challenge?
4. How can we balance our group instruction with more attention to the individual so that we do not lose the latter in our promotion of the former?
5. Is our group instruction program becoming too loosely organized, too general to be effective as the net result of the fact that our learning resources are piling up and diverging too fast for our time or our means of releasing and guiding individual expression?
6. Can we develop our counseling system beyond merely advising and programming students until it becomes a centering influence throughout the school?

Now the advantage of this approach to postwar planning by the high-school faculty is that it provides the opportunity for us to live through our thinking while we are engaged in the process instead of using our restricted group meeting time trying to reconcile divergent views without a center. Such planning as will grow out of systematic answers to these questions in this specific reference will have a here-and-now quality without which talking about the future involves us in a bath of ambiguity mounting soon to faculty skepticism that anything ever will come of it.

It may be of value for us to go further than these general questions and consider three possible and probable changes in the postwar high school.

I. Using Machine-age Communication Facilities

The average high-school student is becoming rapidly immunized to general appeals as a result of our machine instruments of communication, the radio, the movie, and the press, each using the general appeal so extensively. Isn't our high-school program in danger of being weakened because we too rely too much on the general, impersonal appeal as a method of instruction?

There was never a time when there were so many of the resources of culture being showered on people without their effort or even their consent. Radio, movie, and a diversified press, though often thinning them with salesmanship, are spreading wide the resources of culture. Youth lives in the charged atmosphere of what somebody has called cultural inflation. It has this much in common with economic inflation: circulation is speeded up at the expense of value. When the individual youth lives in a whirlwind of impression, nothing is likely to be very impressive.

Education always has been concerned with helping people sort the worth while out of the mere chaff of impression. Now the high school is being confused because the products of cultural inflation are not all chaff, and nobody escapes their abundance. They are reaching into our high schools to bulge our courses and add to our activities. At a time when the high-school student needs more than ever an organizing principle to give meaning to his activities, we have less time and resources for developing this personalized aspect of instruction.

Increase of facilities for communication of this impersonal sort is one of the most dynamic aspects of modern life. These facilities will increase in the postwar period and make the impressionable youth of our high schools harder to impress, particularly with the general and the impersonal. The high school itself will employ more and more of the instruments for speeding communication in the machinery of its instruction, and nobody would argue that the high school should not employ movies, radio, and a wider range or current subject-matter—provided we do not permit their use to confuse where we would strengthen the fundamental values for which the high school exists. Moreover, these values must be more personal if the school is to meet the challenge of modern life.

The increase in the content of instruction makes even greater demands on our system of values, and we are faced now more than ever with the twin problems of selection and emphasis. The war experience should lead us to face these questions in the new form of *selection for what* and *emphasis for whom*. The earlier values of the high-school program have largely broken down for many of our students as a result of the fact that our resources of stimulation have developed faster than our methods or our teacher time for dealing with student response, the latter area being where our chief instructional control must be exercised. We have not faced the primary problem of high-school education until student responses are not only aroused but

identified and directed. Growth resides in expression in a multitude of forms, and we have furnished but one of the conditions of growth when we have speeded up impression. Moreover, this expression must be increasingly individual in its origin as the first step to making it social in its outlet.

As the preliminary steps to an intelligent use of the instruments of our heightened communication, the high school must identify more specifically the reactions we would secure from all students and determine more definitely how nearly we are getting these from students.

Well, here is our first possible and probable change in the postwar high school:

It is quite possible that the postwar period will see us provided with more machine-age communication facilities. We can visualize a time when we shall employ the movie version in advance of our study of the English classic, when we shall see animated diagrams in science and mathematics, such as the Armed Forces are using, when we shall run films that employ the diction and create the atmosphere native to the language we teach, and when we shall use all sorts of demonstrating devices as a part of our classroom equipment. But all of this will merely add to our confusion unless we undertake a more critical evaluation of the results we would achieve, modified by a more distinct means of determining the progress of individual students.

It is more probable, however, that we shall go on adding to the products and instruments of cultural inflation so that our general purpose and more of our students are lost in our machinery. The increase of the materials of instruction, the abbreviation of the content, the registering of more impressions in a shorter period of time will diminish individual expression or stereotype it.

II. Utilizing a Learning Accountancy System

Should not every high school have a learning accountancy system, centering in some form of counseling, at least as intricate and as revealing as the records by means of which we control the finances of our outlay and operative costs?

By a learning accountancy system we refer to a continuous study of individual students as they progress through high school. The results so disclosed about individual students should find their way into the classroom, but if this process is statistical, abstract, and cloistered, of course, it will not help.

We suggest a simple way of beginning this accounting. If we were to place in one group those students who possess good general ability and whose achievement is good and in another group all students whose general abilities are good but whose progress is indifferent or poor, and, finally, if we were to place in a third group all individuals whose abilities are poor or indifferent and whose progress likewise is poor or indifferent, the number in the last two groups would surprise even the most optimistic. Many of these students

will be found to be direct learners who do not progress significantly under generalized instruction.

In Palo Alto High School we gave recently the *Kuder Preference Record*, the *Progressive Achievement Test*, and a general mental ability test to all students. We devised a method of reporting these results on a graph that carries a code number making it possible to identify the individual in a group. The interrelationships of these three measures reveal a startling set of explanations of the lack of progress by the individuals in groups 2 and 3 above. In some cases this set of tests disclosed that the student not only lack such general ability as is measured by the intelligence test and lacks mastery of the fundamental processes necessary to a minimum standard of work, but that his program is out of accord with the whole center of his abilities.

As a conditioning factor in its group-instruction schools, every high school should make a systematic study of all its students. Particularly is this necessary for those students who do not adjust to our regular program. By means of a battery of tests and by mobilization of information which is readily available, it is possible for the high school to have a complete picture of each student, disclosing his previous success, his abilities, his interests, and his learning needs, and finally, how all of these merge into a pattern of learning need and relate to his future plans. It is, in particular, the interrelationships of these data that demand more attention than they get in the average school. A doctor knows that the relation of a person's heart to his lungs may be more significant than the relation of that heart to all other hearts in existence. Yet much of our testing places the individual in the group on some one aspect of his achievement but does not identify his progress in a manner that may reach into the group-instruction machinery to personalize his program.

In Palo Alto High School we try to concentrate all the testing and other in- and out-of-school information on a "Counselor Clearance Form." Each counselor has a notebook containing a pattern page for each of the students in the group. We are trying now to devise a means of working out an equivalent form for the classroom teacher. The important thing in all this is to get the picture of the individual student complete, to study its parts not only in relation to its inner inconsistency, but in relation to all significant in- and out-of-school influences.

For students whose progress is poor or whose adjustment to the school renders their program ineffective, we should devise means of calling the complete picture to the attention of the faculty. A suggested method might be to project this information, and perhaps a counselor's statement of its interpretation, on a screen and ask these questions: What is the most constructive thing this high school could do for this student? Within the resources now at hand? Within attainable resources?

Here is our second possible and probable change in the postwar high school.

It is possible for us to make the faculty more aware of the interests of groups of students and of individual students by a learning accountancy system that will represent a continuous study of how students are progressing.

It is probable, however, that we shall continue to rely on group instruction with our learning accountancy made in different parts of the school by different teachers and never brought together for interpretation and individual direction in a central place.

III. Utilizing G I Methods of Instruction

Can the high school profit by an imitation of the organization and methods of instruction employed by the Armed Services?

When we attempt to answer this question, we are confronted immediately by the lack of a definiteness of purpose in our high-school program corresponding to that of the Service. Perhaps this is to some extent irremediable. Certainly if we find such a sharpening influence for the high school we shall have to look for it in the relation of our general education to the needs of the individual.

If we merely face the old problem of what we are trying to do for all students, this will lead us back into a renewed struggle over subject values. If, however, a faculty approaches this study of relative values by reviewing the learning accountancy procedures suggested in the last section, we believe that clues will appear which will identify the important training aspects of our principal courses and which will tend to break down some of the subject isolationism existing in every high school. Moreover, such an approach would be certain to lead us to face the problem of how to supplement our group instruction with more attention to the individual learner.

We can learn much from the manner in which those in charge of the different Service training courses have organized their related group and individual instruction. Manuals of procedure prepared for use by individual men and small groups of men, in order that group instruction may be supplemented by individual instruction, represent the type of curriculum work needed in every high school.

Every high-school teacher is familiar with the weaknesses of our group instruction—the fallacy of partial achievement, the tendency for individual students to work for the teacher instead of assuming any significant measure of responsibility for their own progress, and, of course, the artificial standard implied in the passing grade. Though our grading system often is as artificial as token money, we know it is the agent rather than the principal cause of the failure of our group instruction with increasing numbers of students.

We shall have to look for this major cause of the failure of group instruction in the failure of the program as a whole to meet the needs of individuals. Assumed values are general values, and the high school cannot challenge the major portion of modern youth with general values alone. We

have developed our curriculum as represented in our different courses about as far as we can without more attention to simplifying it in terms of the purpose of the individual student.

Here enters the counseling influence; but the counseling influence cannot be reflected in the counselor alone—it must be brought to reach out into the classroom, and all teachers must be motivated by it. A significant beginning can be made by a survey of our student groups for similarities of purpose and progress, with accompanying identification of individual students not being reached in any significant manner by our present program.

Here is our last possible and probable change in our postwar high school:

It is possible for the high school to profit by the organization and method of instruction employed by the Armed Services, but we shall have to look for definite pupil purposes as a means of giving an over-all meaning to the high-school program. This is the first step toward finding ways of supplementing our group instruction with attention to individual progress.

It is probable that we shall go on with our loosely organized general instruction program, with our assumed values being neither pointed enough nor our measures of progress personal enough to reach many of our students. Of course a number of our students will do well; more will miss much of their learning opportunity; and a great number will struggle through our general courses without having anyone discover their abilities as the Armed Forces might have disclosed them.

SUMMARY

We have witnessed significant progress in the various fields of curriculum development. In each field our teachers still are baffled by a search for guiding principles of selection and emphasis and the school is becoming increasingly confused by a growing abundance of learning resources. It is a new form of poverty in the midst of plenty. We have become aware of an increased number of in- and out-of-school influences which condition the progress of individual students. The number of instruments for measuring general ability, aptitude, and achievement of students has developed to the point where a measure for almost every learning need is within our reach. All of these movements have contributed to the values of high-school education, but their separate extension has not added a clear note of meaning to the machinery of our school. Their use by different members of our staff often has involved us in a struggle over general values on which we could never agree because we had no center of reference from which to reach even a working agreement.

The present-day high school with its array of general and specialized courses, with its numerous activities and its separate services, has spread to the point where its fundamental values are obscured by the multitude of its purposes and the machinery of its operation. Teachers within the same high

school do not know in any real sense what their colleagues are doing. They do not co-operate as they might, simply because they have so little in common.

If we could visualize a counseling system in which all teachers participate, one that goes beyond the advising and programming of students to accept responsibility for focusing all the resources and influences of the school on groups and on individual students, we would have a significant faculty approach to the confused problem of institutional values.

The war has disclosed with renewed emphasis what the high-school staff already knew. Many students do not find themselves in high school though they prove their worth later. No amount of pointing with pride to the more successful of our students quite makes up for the ugly fact that an increasing number become institutional by-products of our diversified instruction.

Many of our students do not find themselves because of a lack of maturity; they are what somebody has called "late bloomers." Where these individuals are making reasonably good progress in our general courses, this delay is not serious. But many others are making insignificant progress, not from lack of maturity alone but because they are direct learners who continue unchallenged through our general courses, because for them there is no center of meaning. All of these students need to be brought to consider what they would do in life, with what budget of abilities and interests they undertake their future, and how this major consideration relates to and lends importance to most, if not all, their separate courses and activities.

There is no place for us to look for the peacetime equivalent to the motivating influence of war service, except in what individual students would be and do out of school as a result of what they are becoming and doing in school. If the individual doesn't know what he would become, the high school should help him. This is the central challenge of the war to schools.

If we accept this challenge, we will tone up our general instruction program, we will fit our separate courses and activities into a vital pattern—not a neat or simple pattern, but a very significant one. This pattern, growing out of a studied consideration of the learning needs of groups, and finally reaching down to unadjusted individuals, will serve as arbiter of our disputes on overlapping general values and will submit our abstractions to the practical test of selection for groups and emphasis for individuals. It can make the whole staff more acutely aware of our responsibility to students as the first step toward a better service to our social order. It will re-emphasize the human element in the machinery of the high school and accent the common ground between the personal and the social, now appearing to borrow confusion from the abundant resources of modern life.

War with all its dread aspects is at the same time a great simplifier of values for the individual. It should have the same effect on our institutions.

A State Supervisory Program

R. R. EWERZ

Director of Elementary and Secondary Education

State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

LAST fall school officials and teachers approached the opening of the school session with mingled feelings of pride, joy, and sadness. The grim spectre of war hovers about us daily, sometimes remote, sometimes very near, causing us apprehension about our loved ones and even personal anguish because of their loss in battle. And no doubt this latter circumstance will be multiplied many fold as the *tempo* of war increases in the final drive to victory. But here at home we are buoyed up considerably by the satisfaction of beginning the school year under the most favorable conditions in our entire educational history. The reason for this happy outlook, as is well known to all school officials and teachers, is that because of wise and generous provisions by the recent state legislature, sufficient funds have been provided to enable Louisiana for the first time to operate something approaching an adequate system of public education. Other important legislation, also directed to the welfare of teachers and children, was enacted last June.

All the circumstances referred to above make us feel more keenly than ever our responsibilities in the fields of elementary and secondary education. It is, therefore, especially appropriate at the beginning of the school year for us to consider together these responsibilities in terms of the new opportunities for improving the instructional program of our schools and of the needs of those whom this program is designed to serve.

There is no implication here that local school officials and teachers have not already given consideration to these problems and begun planning for their solution; and it is entirely possible that in some places specific problems will exist which are not touched upon in this statement. Nor is it implied in the following pages that every matter discussed would be of special importance to every school. For the most part, however, the considerations to follow will be of concern to those who are responsible for the administration of our schools and for the actual teaching of the pupils who are entrusted to our care during each school year.

Some superintendents and principals may wish to use this program or parts of it as a basis for projecting school objectives. Others may find it desirable to use some of the material to supplement presently planned supervisory programs. Still others may wish to use the statements only as a basis for orientation in regard to fundamental problems, preferring to identify and interpret these problems in terms of local conditions. The fundamental issues which we face during the year in elementary and secondary education, and which must be approached realistically and solved through intelligent planning and

vigorous action on the part of schoolmen, are discussed in the following sections of this article.

1. NO RELAXATION OF WARTIME PROGRAM

There are those who hold that the best wartime program is a good peacetime program. To a great extent this is true, but we have learned that the war emergency has made special demands upon our schools. These responsibilities will continue until final victory, and we should continue to meet them with the same vigor which has characterized the schools' wartime activities during the past two years. There will still be salvage and bond drives and other wartime community enterprises to which pupils can make important contributions. School officials and teachers will continue to be called upon to bring leadership to local wartime projects and activities.

The current successes of the Allies on the military front are likely to create in us the false impression that the tension of effort can be decreased. But no relaxation should be permitted. Indeed, we should exert even greater effort to help add the final and convincing blow to our enemies.

The wartime emphasis in the high-school curriculum should definitely be continued. Especially important in the program of studies are physical fitness, sanitation, and first aid. Knowledge of fundamental mathematical skills is paying high dividends to our boys in Service. These boys are also finding the work they pursued in pre-induction courses to be most helpful in their military training and assignments. These courses include fundamentals of electricity, fundamentals of machines, fundamentals of shop work, fundamentals of radio, fundamentals of auto mechanics, and pre-flight aeronautics. Boys in the Service who were fortunate enough to receive some "pointers" on military drill have found this training to be of distinct advantage to them in their Service assignments and in their advancement in the ranks. Basic language skills, social science which includes map-reading and causes for which we fight, are considered by military authorities to be of great importance to inductees.

There is now a great demand for nurses in the military branches, as well as for work in civilian hospitals. This points to the importance of pre-nursing courses in high school, which include such subjects as chemistry, biology, mathematics, first aid, health, and sanitation. Principals should encourage high-school junior and senior girls to consider seriously preparing themselves to enter this field of service. No higher patriotic service could be rendered by any young woman.

2. THE YOUTH PROBLEM

It was inevitable that the enrollments of our high schools would decrease because of induction of eighteen-year-olds into the Armed Forces. However, this circumstance does not account for the large percentage of high-school youths who are now dropping out of school before graduation. The many

opportunities for placement in business and industry, coupled with a natural restlessness born of the war emergency, provide the chief motives for our youth leaving school. We should redouble our efforts to hold these boys and girls in high school until they have received their high-school diplomas. They will be able to make their best contribution to the Armed Services, to business, or to industry only if they have fortified themselves with a complete high-school education. High-school boys should be especially advised of the fact that preferred assignments and promotion in the military forces are more easily secured if one has completed his high-school education.

Another serious consideration in the matter of leaving high-school before graduation is the fact that replacements in front-line divisions are coming largely from the eighteen-year-old inductees, and also the further fact that these replacements are being made immediately following the thirteen weeks' basic-training period. This makes it all the more important for a boy to remain in school as long as possible prior to induction. And if there is time prior to his induction to enroll in some college work, this should by all means be done, even though he might be called before the end of a semester. This experience, brief though it may be, will help to increase his effectiveness as a member of the military forces.

To youths who will replace men and women in business, in industry, or in agriculture, a complete high-school education is likewise essential. These young people should, of course, be guided into those courses which will prepare them for maximum efficiency in the work responsibilities they will assume. The co-operative and distributive education classes, scheduling half a day in classes and half a day in shops, stores, and other places of business, are especially designed to provide this type of training.

But the preparation of all our high-school youths for their future tasks involves more than keeping them in school until they have received their diplomas. It involves helping boys and girls to discover their talents and capacities, then pointing out the best courses and activities for developing their abilities to the very highest point possible in the time that remains. This service to youth can best be offered through good counseling and guidance activities. High-school principals are more and more recognizing the need for an effective program of guidance, and are wisely establishing guidance procedures as a regular part of the school's program.

One other phase of the youth problem which is challenging the attention of educators at this time is that of juvenile delinquency. It is recognized that this term is used to include many forms of attitudinal behavior which deviate from accepted norms but which are not serious enough to require legal action by the community. The terrific tensions and strains under which youths must now live as they face uncertain and possible tragic futures all too frequently contribute to breakdowns in their personalities and characters. One of the

most successful means of combatting the problem is a well-rounded school and community program for youth. Provisions for wholesome social and recreational activities in the school and in the community will do much toward stemming the tide of juvenile delinquency which seems to be mounting in all sections of our country.

3. BROADER VISION OF EDUCATION

There is a growing conviction on the part of school officials and teachers alike that, if the schools are to assume their full responsibility in perpetuating democracy, they must broaden their horizon of interest and effort. Theoretically, at least, the single objective of teaching subject matter is no longer acceptable. It is agreed that a major emphasis should be given by the schools to the great disciplines of knowledge which have emerged during civilization's upward progress. Indeed, the schools should strive to give even greater attention to developing in our children understandings of the great fundamental truths and principles which constitute the basis of our culture and which are the core of the major fields of the school curriculum. And it should be added that these great fields of learning should be used by teachers not alone as vehicles for conveying the rich heritage of the past, but also to show the continuity of our culture; for testing the thinking of the past and for evaluating the present trends and movements of civilization; and for inspiring future stewards of our civilization to discover new truths to be applied to future progress.

But having made this important concession to the importance of teaching subject matter, it must be recognized that a new interpretation is being given to the basic functions of the public schools. This modern viewpoint is that the functions of the school are not limited to bringing pupils in contact with the truths of the past and the facts of the present, nor to developing in our youth some degree of vocational competence. The school is now being thought of as an integral part of a community, with certain reciprocal responsibilities recognized and accepted by each. This relationship is presented in two main aspects.

First, it has gradually become apparent that the community contiguous to a school holds vast resources which may be used for the enrichment of teaching and learning in the classrooms. These resources abound in many forms and include such elements as trees, rivers, bayous, animals, historic places, industries, farms and their many products, museums, works of art and literary products—the results of ceaseless, tireless, and loving efforts by pioneers. All these and many other community resources may provide untold opportunities for the enrichment of the pupils' learning.

The broader vision of public education as it relates to the community suggests also the enrichment of the community through the program of the school. This enrichment may result from courses and activities of the school's

program presented in such a way as to meet the needs of the community—needs which might not be met in any other way. For example, in health classes, biology classes, or in home economics classes, diseases or sanitation problems peculiar to a community may be studied. But such a project should not stop here; plans would be made by the pupils themselves to help eradicate these undesirable conditions.

Many other community problems may be approached in the same manner—problems of housing, agriculture, home and community beautification, recreation, nutrition, to mention only a few of the areas in which improvements will bring higher standards of living for many and greater happiness for all.

4. TWELVE-GRADE PROGRAM

Convincing evidence of the development of broader vision of education is the inauguration of the twelve-year program for public schools of the state of Louisiana. As Superintendent Cox recently stated in a letter to Dr. John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, "This extended type of school system will enable the schools to enrich the curriculum and to offer more attractive school programs to boys and girls on the secondary level."

It is not the purpose here to discuss the procedures of converting from the eleven-grade system to the twelve-grade program in the state of Louisiana; nor to comment on the problems incident to this conversion. These matters have been discussed in a series of regional meetings to which all school officials of the state were invited. A detailed guide on conversion problems has been prepared and has been distributed to school administrators throughout the state.

It is important to remember that in the state of Louisiana as a whole, schools did not add the new eighth grade to the elementary school in the 1944-45 session, but will do so a year hence. Complete conversion to the twelve-grade program will be effected in 1949, thus giving school boards sufficient time to plan administrative changes, which will result in higher efficiency and greater economy in the operation of schools. This procedure was recommended by the Committee on the Twelve-Grade Program, appointed by Superintendent Cox, and made up of leading school men and women of the state. It was also concurred in by a large majority of parish superintendents throughout the state.

5. REHABILITATION AND EDUCATION OF RETURNING VETERANS

With the increased numbers of returning veterans there will be an increase in applications for education and training under the provisions of the "GI Bill of Rights." It is now becoming apparent that many of these applications will be for education on the secondary level. It is unlikely that many of these returning veterans will wish to enroll in high-school classes because of age considerations. However, if veterans are inclined to return to high school, principals should give them every encouragement to do so. The veterans

should also be informed of the possibilities of completing high-school subjects by means of individual instruction. Also, they should be apprised of opportunities for enrolling in correspondence courses through the Extension Division of State Universities and of the opportunities for pursuing vocational training in state trade schools, whose widely varied courses are splendidly adapted to aiding veterans in occupational adjustment. State departments are co-operating with the Veterans Administration in its program of training for returning veterans who have service-connected disabilities.

6. SCHOOL SUPERVISION

With the acute shortage of teachers and the accompanying necessity for employing teachers with minimum qualifications, the matter of supervision of classroom instruction has assumed special importance. Supervision of classroom instruction is a function of the principal of the school. It is his duty to see that classroom teaching is effective. Learning objectives, instructional material, methods of teaching, results of teaching—all these essentials of classroom instruction should be a matter of frequent check-up by the principal. The supervisor is ready and willing to assist the school principal in carrying on an effective plan of school supervision, and he should be called in frequently for whatever assistance he can render. With specialists available in virtually every subject-matter field, as well as in the general fields of elementary and secondary education, the state department is in a position to provide technical advice or assistance in curriculum and administrative problems as they arise. The summer workshops have demonstrated the value of this service, as have field visits of supervisors during the school year.

7. EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

From time to time it is desirable to appraise the objectives, the procedures, the materials of instruction, and, indeed, all the elements which contribute to a successful school program. This holds true on the state level, on the parish level, and certainly for the activities which go on in individual classrooms. This year the State Department of Education of Louisiana has decided on the state level to examine objectively certain of the elements of the school program for which department, because of the very nature of its functions, is primarily responsible. This appraisal will involve textbooks, courses of study, and the entire plan of state supervision. It is expecting interesting revelations, some of which may indicate changes in present policies and procedures; all of them will contribute to the continued improvement of the entire school program.

Some form of evaluation of the school programs may also be considered desirable. Already the State Superintendent has proffered the assistance of department personnel for making parish "organizational studies." These, of course, will involve the broader aspects of the administration of schools, such as problems of consolidation, transportation, and Negro education, as well as instructional problems.

It is too early to evaluate fully the school program in terms of the war effort. And when we do finally reach a point where we are ready to sit down and study its weaknesses and strengths in the light of the demands of the war emergency, we shall discover that many factors must be taken into consideration before true, and valid conclusions can be reached. Present indications are, however, that the war will have demonstrated the value of fundamental knowledges and skills; of habits of accuracy and work; of good health, of co-operation, and of the ability to perform at least one thing well. Naïve and often too ready acceptance of false educational doctrines have in the past caused some of our good teachers to lighten the emphasis on basic essentials of learning. It is apparent the pendulum is again swinging the other way, but we trust it will never swing so far that learning becomes a matter of drill and reciting.

8. ROLE OF SCHOOLS IN PLANS FOR PEACE

The role of education in plans for peace has been discussed at great length by contemporary writers and speakers. Not even a brief discussion of the topic is appropriate here. If education will play a very great role in the winning of the peace, the elementary and secondary schools of this nation will have a generous contribution to make in this effort, since these institutions constitute a very large part of the force of education.

The greatest contribution which the elementary and secondary schools can make to peace is to help children to understand the aims of this war, and to encourage them to bring their lives in line with these aims.¹ Many avenues are open to teachers to bring the children of our schools these understandings and to show their relationship to the problems of peace. Social studies classes provide one of the main approaches; but teachers of every subject can at some time stress these aims and help mold the child's attitudes in line with them. One very effective means of developing understandings of the problems of peace and of developing of proper attitudes in pupils toward them is the public forum type of discussion. After all, free discussion is one of the great foundation stones of democracy, and every boy and girl should be taught its value and its technique. Every school should develop teaching units or activities on this important subject, "The Role of Schools in Plans for Peace," with special reference to safeguarding that peace, and the responsibilities which youth will sooner or later assume as they take their places as adult citizens in a postwar democracy.

¹Educational Policies Commission, *Learning About Education and the Peace*. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., 1944. P. 3.

Community Relationships*

IN ANY SCHOOL system, each teacher is employed by the community, hence, each teacher must assume the responsibility for being a community-relations agent. The public owns the schools and pays taxes to support them, therefore, the public has a right to know what, if any, dividends are being paid. For this reason, each teacher must feel a personal responsibility for keeping the public informed concerning the work of the school in general, and his contribution in particular. Briefly, community relationships means three things:

1. Telling the community what service you are giving them.
2. Finding out what services the community wants.
3. Co-operatively with the public, discovering and carrying out additional services which might be desirable.

A PROGRAM

What is a sound program of community relationships? In order to answer this question, it is necessary to consider a number of fundamental questions in order to get a proper setting for adequate planning. The questions with some suggested answers follow:

1. Why does any community support its public schools?

1. The law makes it obligatory.
2. Americans naturally believe in education, and they are interested in it because they believe it to be essential for promoting the democratic way of life.
3. Communities take pride in their provisions for education and manifest a competitive spirit, wanting to be as good as, if not better, than other neighboring communities.
4. Parents have a selfish interest in the progress of their children.
5. Most communities recognize that a good educational system enhances the property values in that community, and that it develops means of self-preservation and protection for the community.
6. Dr. Bagley has shown that there is a high positive correlation between a community's bank deposits and the amount of money spent for education. Also, an inverse relationship exists between the cost of crime in a locality and the amount of money spent for education.

7. For the sake of perpetuating our American traditions and making available the best experiences of the past for future generations, we support the public schools.

*This report was prepared by a committee of which J. E. Nancarrow, Principal of the Upper Darby Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pa., was chairman. The report is the result of a three-day conference on Secondary Education held at Drexel Lodge, Newtown Square, Pa., on June 23-25, 1944, at which secondary-school principals of eastern Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New Jersey were in attendance.

8. Certain groups are interested in education in order that their own programs may be promoted.
9. Parents recognize that the public school can educate their children more economically and better than they can do it themselves.

II. What are the groups that favor or retard the complete development of the public schools?

1. The success or failure to interpret properly the public schools to the community, is a significant reason why many groups are for or against the public school system.
2. Labor Unions usually are for the program of free public education. It was shown, however, that their representatives are seldom on school boards.
3. Racial groups are favorable to education when the schools are sympathetic to them and their programs.
4. Taxpayer's Leagues and Economy Leagues are very often supported by large corporations with vested interests. They constantly seek financial economy and work directly or indirectly to keep down governmental costs.
5. Patriotic and fraternal groups (American Legion, P.O.S. of A., etc.) are generally favorable to the public schools.
6. Friends of the Public Schools (Brig. Gen. Amos Fries, Chairman) is an organization which is really against the work of the public schools.
7. Women's Clubs are generally favorable to public education.
8. Real Estate Boards are generally favorable to public education if the community is growing, but they often try to keep costs down to the limit when the community has already reached its growth.
9. Service clubs are quite fair when the facts are presented and are generally favorable to education.
10. Where the municipal council collects all taxes, there is quite often stiff competition with respect to the levying and use of public funds.
11. The attitude of the press may make or break the work of the school.
12. Proper use of the radio is a strong factor in certain communities.
13. Casual comment on the screen in the movie houses is an important factor in interpreting education.

III. Why should the public schools be interested in keeping the public informed concerning the work of the public schools?

1. The public invests money in our schools, hence, it is interested in knowing how well the money is spent and what it gets for it.
2. It pays to advertise.
3. Parents have a right to know what is happening to their children.
4. The best informed parents are the most loyal school supporters.

5. To prevent carping criticism, often based on misinformation.
6. The school must publicize the services it is rendering to the community in order to head off propaganda against the schools.
7. The public school must be sensitive to the needs and objectives of society and revise its program in order to satisfy the needs of changing society.
8. In summary, the schools have a three-fold task:
 - A. To keep the public informed concerning services.
 - B. To study the community and find out what services are needed.
 - C. To discover, plan, and carry out a program suited to the present or future needs of the community through a joint community-school council.

IV. What attitude should the public schools assume with other agencies whose purposes may be similar to those of the public schools?

1. It is the opinion of the group that the public schools must co-operate with other community agencies in promoting activities for children and adults, and, in many cases, the school will supervise these.

3. Public education must be broadened to provide for the needs of children, youths, and adults either directly or in co-operation with other agencies. This would include parallel educational agencies.

V. Should the public school follow the pattern of the society in which it exists, or should it try to mold that society according to the thought and leadership of those guiding educational programs?

1. A sane educational program is necessary if it is to stand the test of time. Schools should experiment scientifically, when introducing new ideas, and should not rush into every new course or program which is proposed.

2. As any new program progresses, the school must educate the community in order that it may know what is taking place and avoid recessions.

3. In the past, the school has been too conservative and has failed to take the initiative and to assume proper leadership.

4. In the past, the school has been very reluctant to make changes in order to keep tuned to the needs of society, therefore, many programs have necessarily been introduced into the schools as a result of force or pressure from outside agencies.

5. A decided weakness in the schools has been the failure to take the community into the confidence, and counsel of schoolmen.

6. Some schools have failed in that they have been unable to interest enough teachers to participate in determining new policies and in carrying out these policies.

7. Teachers in particular, and school administrators in general, have not been sufficiently assertive, progressive, or militant. They need to be stimulated to action.

VI. When the public school is attacked by persons who have selfish or misguided interests, and propaganda is used in the attack, how should the school meet the situation with the community?

1. The course of action depends upon how well the fences have been built before the attack comes.
2. An invitation to the objector to visit the school frequently settles a dispute or criticism.
3. P.T.A. groups are frequently bulwarks for education.
4. Interest and stimulate friendly or supporting groups to meet the attack. Prepare your program of defense and have your supporters use it.
5. In some cases, investigation and proper exposure of unfounded criticisms or false statements will properly meet the attack.
6. In other cases, an erroneous criticism should be ignored by the school. This is particularly true when the mis-statement is obvious.
7. The status (reputation, length of service, etc.,) of the superintendent, principal, or teacher may determine the method of meeting the attack. Prepare your program of defense and have your supporters use it.
8. Teachers should present a united front to the public, hence, they must be informed concerning the problems, programs, and policies of the school system.
9. The student body should be kept at a high level of morale and belief in the school, hence, they must also be kept informed.
10. To eliminate the effect of insidious propaganda when it is attempted, the school must keep the public informed, day by day, concerning the work of the school.

VII. What *media* should be used in contacting the public? Outline best procedures to be followed in the use of each.

1. Newspapers (personal contact with editor and reporters) .
2. Radio.
3. Speakers' Bureau, which is made up of various members from the school personnel.
4. Pupils (athletics, music, dramatics, etc.)
5. Friendly and co-operative organizations.
6. Give services of various kinds to the public such as the ration registration by teachers.
7. Maintain contacts with the boys in the service through letters.
8. School newspaper.

9. A community council.
10. Participation of school people in the community activities.
11. Arrange a joint dinner of the local government officials and the board of education.
12. Have the board of education meet with the teachers in order to become better acquainted, and plan future programs, buildings, and other projects.
13. Make the pupils and their achievements the center of interest at the commencement exercises.
14. Use the pupils in promoting the sale of bonds for community recreational facilities and in promoting a speakers' bureau for the Community Chest.

VIII. Why should school teachers not take an active part in community organizations and activities?

1. In most cases, the teachers should take a more active part in all the activities of the community.
2. In some cases, teachers may give false impressions to the public because they are not familiar with the objectives of the school, its program, or they do not believe in them. Teachers must be educated in these matters.
3. Some persons argue that teachers already have a heavy load and that they should not be expected to participate in many community activities.

IX. Outline a definite organization with the duties of each person in school systems of the following numbers of teachers:

1. *Fifty teachers*

In a community of fifty teachers, the committee on community relations should consist of the superintendent of schools or other administrative men, a director of public relations, and one member from each school building in the district. This committee might select about five lay people from the community as an advisory committee. They should be selected on their ability as individuals and not as representatives of organizations. It would be helpful if they knew something about the field of community relations.

Since every school district is likely to be different from its neighbor, the advisory committee should decide on the program for the district. It should make every effort to make known to all the teachers the program and policies of the committee. A small school system cannot have an elaborate program but this is no excuse for not having any program. The committee should emphasize that good teacher-pupil-parent relationships will go a long way toward

keeping satisfactory relationships between the community and the school. Sell the school to the pupils and they will sell it to their parents. Unless this is done, high-powered promotion programs will avail nothing. Intelligent co-operation and sympathetic understanding of the child, day by day, is the basis for a strong program in a community of fifty teachers.

2. *One hundred fifty teachers*

A. Public Relations Executive Committee

a. Personnel of committee

- (a) Member of board of education
- (b) Superintendent of schools
- (c) Principals
 - (1) Senior high school
 - (2) Junior high school
 - (3) Elementary and high-school principals

b. Purpose

- (a) To determine what type of program is desirable.
- (b) To establish a mutual understanding of the program.

c. Duties

- (a) To choose personnel of such committees within the school and community to contact listed organizations to determine community and school needs.
- (b) To emphasize the principle to their staffs—professional and non-professional—that in the final analysis each person in the system is a public-relations person.
- (c) To review and approve the sub-committee reports and activities.
- (d) To hold regular stated meetings to provide a continuing and developing program.

B. Sub-committees

a. Duties

- (a) To organize the program as assigned, subject to the approval of the executive committee, and then to carry it out.

C. Suggested list of organizations which might be contacted:

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| a. Service clubs | i. Fraternal organizations |
| b. Church groups | j. Municipal governing authorities |
| c. Racial groups | k. Welfare and social agencies |
| d. Youth organizations | l. Manufacturer's organizations |
| e. Labor groups | m. Women's organizations |
| f. Business groups | n. Patriotic organizations |
| g. Newspapers | o. Nationalistic groups |
| h. Radio | p. Professional groups |

D. Groups closely connected with the school:

- | | |
|--|---|
| a. Board of education | e. Adult education groups |
| b. Parent-Teachers' | f. Special teacher and parent activities |
| c. Staff (professional
(non-professional) | g. Extracurriculum' activities including
all school publications |
| d. Publicity flyers | h. Annual reports of board of education |

3. Three hundred teachers

In a district having three hundred or more teachers, there should be a director of public relations who has a teaching schedule in which time is allowed for the public-relations work. If the school system has such a director, the superintendent as the responsible head of the schools, must be responsible for approving all new policies, though routine matters need not have his personal attention.

The public-relations program should be recognized as one of the most vital parts of the school system. An advisory council should supervise the programs. It should attempt to interpret the schools to the community and, in turn, to interpret the needs and problems of the community to the school. Some suggestions for setting up a program are:

- A. The director of public relations should contact every building in order to stimulate public-relations activities in the various schools.
- B. One or more teachers in each building, who have a "publicity slant" should be trained by this director on what news is worthy of attention, and other essential assistance.
- C. Not only the regular work of the school, but the work of the auxiliary agencies should also be publicized.

Some suggested plans:

- A. Spot the news and prepare professional articles for the newspapers and magazines.
- B. Have the schools broadcast regularly.
- C. Encourage members of the profession to join service clubs, community activities such as the Red Cross, social agencies, church groups, Chamber of Commerce, and the like.
- D. Arrange a speakers' bureau of school people to interpret the schools to the public.

- X. When numerous complaints come to the administration office concerning Mr. John Doe who is fifty-seven years of age, or Miss Mary Smith who is forty-five and set in her ways, and knows that she is always right, what methods should be used by the administration in order to change the situation from a public-relations viewpoint?

1. Make frequent supervisory visits to the classroom of the teacher involved.
 2. Encourage the teacher to establish more community contacts.
 3. Conduct demonstrations in the teacher's classes.
 4. Have the teacher visit other teachers at work.
 5. Recommend professional courses.
 6. Change his schedule, grade, or school.
 7. Hold a conference between the teacher and the parent in the administration office. If the teacher is wrong, he must be made to realize the effects of his attitude upon the school and the whole profession.
 8. There must be constant and frequent indoctrination of teachers with the philosophy, policies, and program of the school system.
 9. Panel-discussion programs at faculty meetings will evoke expression of varying points of view by the young and old teacher alike and by the progressive and conservative.
 10. Assignment of good, older teachers to sponsor the new or younger teachers will improve the service of both teachers.
 11. The salary schedule should provide a stimulus for professional growth.
- XI. Should the administrator control the Parent-Teacher Association? Should he promote Parent-Teacher Associations or try to kill them off?
1. In most cases, the administrator should promote the PTA.
 2. In most cases, the administrator should not control the Parent-Teacher Association but should be consulted concerning its policies and program.
- XII. What organization of personnel and devices should be used in order that the school may know the needs and desires of the community?
1. A community advisory council.
 2. All groups in the community should be asked what they want in the schools. There are too few people who determine what shall be done to support education.
 3. Each service club should have an education committee. This committee should conduct forums on education before the club.
- XIII. How can one prepare or educate his faculty to meet the problems that arise in developing a good school-community public-relations program.
1. Conduct panel-type faculty meetings.
 2. Work on definite problems that teachers can study in committee.
 3. Make teachers aware of the fact that their personal salvation or success is involved in a good community-relations program.
 4. Some teachers must be stimulated to be more active in community activities—others must be curtailed. (introvert *vs.* extrovert)

5. Teacher training institutions should include instruction in the problems of teacher-community relationships and their significance.

XIV. What methods of appraisal should be used in altering and re-vamping the public relations program?

1. Get reactions from sympathetic groups or individuals. It may be from an advisory group but not from members of the teaching profession.
2. The number of parents who register satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work of the school is one means of appraisal.
3. Another means of appraisal is the number of editorials for or against the school system. A continuous appraisal is necessary.
4. The morale of the faculty and of the student body is another means of checking your program. A complaint box is often very good.
5. The local branch of the Education Association can help.
6. The student-council reaction and suggestions are of value.
7. The success of the high-school graduates as disclosed by a follow-up program is illuminating.
8. Attendance of parents and others at public meetings and performances is important.
9. The attitude of the real estate broker is important.
10. How willingly parents react and work for legislation to secure these improvements is important.
11. A study of the illegal absence in any school is one means of determining how well the school is functioning.
12. The extent to which community organizations call upon or co-operate with the schools indicates their viewpoint.

XV. What place has "research" in the public-relations program?

1. Prepare graphs and compare costs and other valuable statistics.
2. Compile data or conduct studies to counteract false conclusions issued by national associations (NAM, Taxpayers' League, etc.)
3. Compare public-relations program with those used in other districts.
4. Research reports must be written so that the public will clearly understand them. Explain terms which are technical.

IMPORTANT FACTORS REPEATEDLY MENTIONED

1. There is a great need for the average teacher to realize the importance of community relationships. Most teachers neglect this important work.
2. There is a need for a constant and continuous appraisal of the community relations program.
3. A program which is intermittent is of little value; to be effective, it must be carried on day after day as part of a planned program.
4. Someone with a "nose for news" is needed to head up or direct such a program.

They Learn by Doing

ELEANOR L. WOLCOX

Arlington Memorial School, Arlington, Vermont

REALIZING the very definite need of competent girls to care for children in our town after school and during evenings, the author, a teacher in the Arlington school dared to venture on the development of a realistic unit on Child Care for freshmen and sophomore girls last fall. Out of the class of nineteen, it was learned that more than half of them took care of children sometime during the week. By talking with those girls, it was discovered that they were interested in learning more about understanding children and getting along better with them. The rest of the girls showed unusual interest in children so, after discussing the possibility of such a project with the principal, Mr. John M. Moore, plans were developed to make an intensive study of children.

The girls realize that such a study would be more meaningful if they had a chance actually to observe and work with small children. Thus a play-school was outlined by the class. Each girl decided upon a small child whom she wished to bring to the school. She obtained the approval of the parents both as to the project and to permit their tiny tots to attend the play-school. In preparation for the project, colorful picture books were made by the girls. They also brought toys, dolls, small furniture, and other play material from home in order to have a well-equipped school.

THE FACILITIES

A large and sunny home economics room was found very adaptable for conducting the school. Small tables were borrowed from a local library. Chairs were secured from the elementary school. A bookcase with several shelves in it served as storage space for playthings. The faculty room located on the same floor near the home economics room provide a satisfactory place for the children's wraps and bathroom facilities.

Since the home economics class met the first two periods in the morning, it was convenient for the girls to bring the children at 8:20. At 10 o'clock some of the girls went to classes, some went to the study hall, while others remained with the children. At that time the junior and senior girls came in, observed, and guided the children. This was possible because these girls were so interested in the project that they asked to stop their nutrition classes for the time being to work with the children. Some of them had studied nutrition before and wanted to learn more. Strangely enough the little tots did not mind in the least the changing of classes and the different girls coming in to take charge.

THE PROGRAM

For the first part of the morning, the children had supervised play and color work. Then a simple mid-morning lunch of fruit or tomato juice and crackers was served. After that they went out-doors where they participated in group games. These games were planned beforehand but there was free activity upon the part of the child.

On the first day of school, the group was very fortunate to secure the services of a local woman who had many years of nursery-school experience. She took charge on the first morning, then the girls in groups of four were in charge each day thereafter, while the teacher remained in the background to help when necessary. While some were supervising, others were making careful observations. Each girl had a definite child about whom she gave a final report when the project ended.

The project was very worth while and very stimulating. It proved to be very successful. The children enjoyed themselves immensely. When the project was ended, they could not understand why they could not continue. In many cases it afforded associations for children who had no brothers, sisters, or nearby children with whom they could play. The girls enjoyed themselves. The author of this article also had a wonderful opportunity to watch the girls relax with, work with, and handle the problems of the children. The school was in session two weeks. About sixteen children attended although one day twenty-three were present. During all this time the weather was excellent so that it was possible to be outdoors. As a result, the little boys and girls did not become too restless during such a long morning.

There are many improvements which could be made in carrying on the play-school. The first time a thing is tried it rarely turns out perfectly. Another year the project should run longer, for, as many girls commented, "We just became acquainted with the children when they stopped coming." Also, it would be even more worth while to have the children stay for the mid-day meal and afternoon nap. By so doing, the girls would have a real opportunity to cope with the regular routine of eating and sleeping. Nevertheless, it was gratifying to realize that there were so many good results from the project. All of the girls in the class were well qualified to care for children. The girls were all very enthusiastic about the project. The play-school was an excellent opportunity for them to learn by doing. The following are some of the girls' reactions to the project:

REACTION TO THE PLAY-SCHOOL

I liked the idea of having a play-school in our home economics class very much. I had no experience with children between the ages of three and five. I learned that you just cannot say, "No, no, you mustn't do that" to children for they want to know why. I think that I profited by such an experience because now I know how to act with small children.

If we were going to have this project again, I would like to have the children longer. You only get to know them at the end of the second week. I have always liked small children, but I like them even better now since I have learned how to act with them.—*Patricia Hulet, Freshman.*

I think that this unit on the care of the small child was very interesting and worth while. Being able to have children come to school so that we could observe them helped a great deal. It gave us a chance to use some of the things which we had studied a few days before. We had enough children so that we all had a good chance to take care of them.

The children on the whole were very active. We had a great many toys which they enjoyed. All of the girls in the class brought a few little toys so that this project could be carried on. Each morning four girls were chosen to plan the activities of the school. We found that one has to have a great many games ready for the children because even if they like the game they don't like to play for very long.

I think that the lunch in the middle of the morning helped much; and, after the first day, they looked forward to it. We taught them to wash their hands before eating and to sit down at the table and fold their hands before they were served. We could see very plainly the ones who had been taught to do this at home. We could also see the children who had had their own way at home and expected the same at school. This project increased my liking for children. It helped me to understand them.—*Rita Corey, Freshman.*

I enjoyed this short course more than any other course that I have taken in home economics. While I have always loved children, especially those of this age, I never had much opportunity to play with them and to study their reactions to different things. I learned that children like to have you help them construct things, but that they want to do most of the work themselves. They like to have you admire their creations and they like to share their play with other children.

Never before did I realize how rapidly children change their play and what a vivid imagination they have. Also, I noticed how rapidly they learned the names of other children and how they learned to play games. I now understand why mothers of three or four small children are exhausted at the end of the day.

It was mentioned that a smaller school would be more successful, but I disagree. I think that it is much more fun for the children to play in large groups. It also gives us a better chance to observe different types of children.

If I should now have the opportunity to look after children while their parents are away, I feel that I could handle them better after this experience in school.—*Millicent Vaughn, Senior.*

I think our play-school project was very good for both the students and the children. I know I learned a lot about children. I have never had a chance

to see young children playing together before in such a large group. It gave me a chance to watch their reactions to organized play, to discover their likes and dislikes, and to learn whether or not they were willing to share their play things. It was especially interesting and helpful to me because I plan to become a child's nurse after I finish school.

It taught me how to correct children, to keep them interested, and how to teach them. It is surprising how rapidly they learn little things, and how easy it is to help them form good habits when they are young.—*Lena Mae Galli, Senior.*

I think it was a good idea to have the children at school after studying something about them. It aroused interest in the subject and was a worth-while experience for both pupils and children.

Every day four girls guided or led the activities. They had an opportunity to see how each child listened to reason, how well they listened to and followed directions, and how each child responded to music and drawing. They enjoyed the mid-morning lunch with enthusiasm and satisfaction.

I think it was a good idea, because in this critical time of war, mothers, who work away from home, can leave their children knowing that they are in skillful, efficient hands. Parents thought the project was fine too because it taught children how to get along with each other and to be separated from their parents for a while.—*Ellen Ouhl, Freshman.*

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American Private Schools in Latin America*

ROY TASCO DAVIS

Director, Inter-American Schools Service, American Council on Education,
Washington, D. C.

THE PRIVATE SCHOOL is as important and necessary in Latin America as it was in the United States before our public—state and municipal—school systems came into existence. In Latin America as a whole approximately a fifth of the elementary and more than a third of the secondary students attend private schools.

There are several reasons for the wide acceptance of private education in Latin America. Although most countries are making increased appropriations for education, public funds for this purpose are still inadequate. As long as this is so, private institutions probably will continue to carry a considerable portion of the financial burden that would otherwise fall upon the state. A factor supporting the private school is the class consciousness of the Latin American. In almost all countries of Latin America, the upper classes prefer to send their children to private schools with a selected patronage rather than to those of the state. Another reason is that private schools generally offer various noteworthy advantages: better personnel and plants, smaller classes, broader courses, special emphasis on foreign languages and effectiveness in teaching them, and a program of extracurriculum activities providing recognized educational values.

There has been a tendency in recent years to regulate private schools through laws which set up official courses of study, limit the use of foreign languages as *media* of instruction, and require the employment of a specified proportion of national teachers. In some cases regulations were adopted in order to curtail and perhaps eliminate German, Italian, and Japanese schools. Since the laws had to be general, they affect other foreign-sponsored schools as well. Although these regulations have made it necessary for American-sponsored schools to adjust their courses to the national program and have restricted their freedom of action, the majority have found it possible to comply with the regulations and at the same time offer a program that is generally acceptable to both nationals and North Americans. Further regulation may be expected with growing nationalism, but it is hardly probable, in view of the important place held by private schools in the national educational program, that they will be regulated out of existence.

Just as it is evident that the American-sponsored private school satisfies a need felt in the Latin American countries by various classes of people, and for various reasons, so its motivation from the sponsoring end is equally

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*Throughout this article the term "American" has been used in the popular rather than the strictly accurate sense.

diverse. In the case of company-sponsored schools for staff employees' children, as well as a number of joint company or community institutions, an "American" school is a convenience and, in some cases, a necessity. American employees are relatively transient and American families of the quality desired are notably unwilling to be separated from their children. Mission schools, on the other hand, cater mainly to nationals.

PLACE OF THE AMERICAN-SPONSORED PRIVATE SCHOOL

Although efforts have been made to gather statistics on the number of foreign-sponsored private schools in the other American republics, information on this subject is as yet so inadequate as to be undependable. It is estimated, however, that approximately a third of the private schools are of foreign sponsorship. Roughly three fourths of these foreign-sponsored schools, in turn, are church-connected, the majority being maintained by Catholic orders. These are mainly Spanish, French, Belgian, Italian, or German. American Catholic orders have recently established five schools in Chile and Peru.

The Protestant schools in Latin America are largely sponsored by groups in the United States as follows:

Adventist	22
Baptist	21
Episcopalian	2
Methodist	29
Presbyterian	43
Others	4
Total	121

On the following page may be found a summary of American-sponsored schools in Latin America, showing by countries the number of these schools and the approximate number of students enrolled.

KINDS OF AMERICAN-SPONSORED SCHOOLS

The various kinds of American-sponsored schools in Latin America may be divided roughly into three major categories: denominational or church-connected schools, company schools, and community schools. A number of institutions have evolved from one category to another. The American Grammar and High School in Buenos Aires, for instance, is ostensibly and for most practical purposes a community project controlled by a board of local business men. Technically, however, it is a section of Ward College, an institution built and maintained by the Methodist Board of Missions with assistance from the Disciples of Christ. Several other schools created originally by mission boards now have their independent boards of trustees either in the United States or in the country in which they are located, and may thus be said to be in process of passing from one category to another, follow-

AMERICAN-SPONSORED SCHOOLS SHOWING SPONSORING

Country	Company	Church	Inde- pendent	Total	Pupils
Argentina	1	6	1	8	1,675
Bolivia	1	6	2	9	1,728
Brazil	1	27	2	30	15,445
Chile	5	9	2	16	3,366
Colombia	5	11	2	18	2,442
Costa Rica	3	2		5	180
Cuba	2	8	2	12	2,602
Dominican Republic	1	2		3	482
Ecuador	2	2	2	6	440
El Salvador		3		3	775
Guatemala	2	3	2	7	1,331
Haiti		4	1	5	336
Honduras	5	2	1	8	534
Mexico	3	25	6	34	8,681
Netherlands West Indies	1			1	216
Nicaragua		2		2	1,200
Panama	1	2		3	820
Paraguay		1		1	400
Peru	2	8		10	3,350
Uruguay		1		1	580
Venezuela	9	2	1	12	596
Total	44	126	24	195	47,179a

a. In addition to the above, it is estimated that approximately 11,500 students are receiving some instruction in church-sponsored social service centers; and that approximately 10,000 students are attending national schools supported in whole or part by North American business concerns.

ing an evolution somewhat similar to that already many times repeated in the United States.

The Church-Connected School

Mission schools differ among themselves in the special motivation behind them and the social and economic group to which they appeal. Some are designed especially for the governing class; others are philanthropic and humanitarian in their inspiration, aiming at providing greater educational opportunity for the underprivileged. Several Protestant mission boards and at least one Catholic order maintain schools of both kinds. In general it may be said that the larger and more important mission schools have appealed mainly to the middle class. In countries where no middle class has existed, the opportunities provided by these schools have contributed, along with other factors, to the growth of such a class. In every major city of the continent may be found competent young people who will volunteer the information that it was the mission school which gave them their opportunity in life, an opportunity which in its briefest statement has been, simply, to

pass into the middle class with its relatively greater possibilities for self-development and self-respect.

The Company School

Company schools are of two kinds: those which any firm developing a remote and unpopulated district is required by law to establish for the children of its national employees, and those established for the children of foreign employees. In the case of schools of the former type, the school buildings are provided by the companies. The teachers are appointed by the national ministry of education. In some cases the teachers so appointed are paid by the companies. Schools of this type offer the regular official curriculum of the country in which they are located, and are not usually considered "American" schools. On the other hand, in most Latin American countries schools for the children of American and other employees who desire an American-type education for their children are simply transplanted American schools, differing from schools in this country only in their geographical location. Curriculum, textbooks, and teachers are imported from the United States. Where groups of children are too small to warrant the employment of a trained teacher from the United States, the children often follow a system of instruction by correspondence guided by one or more of the mothers.

The Community School

In the capitals and other larger cities where numerous American firms are located, each faced with the need of providing for the education of the children of its short-termed American employees, community schools have been created. These schools have usually been established through the initiative of local American business men with financial contributions from the major American firms in the locality. In almost all cases these schools, once established, have attracted a considerable clientele from among the nationals of the country. In most cases such interest on the part of people in the country has been welcomed, bringing a strengthened financial position through a larger tuition income, and increased social and professional contacts with local people.

In several cases, interestingly enough, it has been the initiative of the nationals themselves which has led to the creation of these bilingual, binational, and co-operative inter-American community schools. This was the case of the American School of Quito, founded by Ecuadorans in protest against Nazi indoctrination of their children in the well-established and well-financed German schools.

It is due largely to these intercommunity ventures that from a diversity of policy and curriculum patterns there has recently evolved a philosophy of cultural relations to supersede both the cultural imperialism and the cultural isolation of the older types of American schools. To a number of American communities abroad, it has now become evident that, even while preparing

their children for college training and adult life in the United States, they must also take advantage of the opportunity afforded them by residence in another country to become acquainted with other people, other *mores*, and other traditions. Thus in countries where government regulations now require that the full official curriculum be taught to all children in the elementary grades by nationally licensed teachers and in the language of the country, the American schools have accepted these regulations with good grace and see in them an opportunity for growth. In countries where regulations have not yet become so demanding, many schools are voluntarily organizing a dual bilingual and binational curriculum taught by a staff representing two, and often more, nationalities.

"Coeducation" is the word that has been coined to speak of the education together of children of various nationalities. With this new ideal, our schools in Latin America are moving into a new era of co-operation between both parents and teachers of various nationalities. No longer are parents inclined to look askance upon the children of "foreigners." Increasingly, that are becoming convinced of both the good practical sense and the personal satisfaction of true co-operation.

Accreditation from official American sources, especially for a hybrid curriculum and by remote control, presents various problems. Three schools have achieved accreditation by American standardizing agencies. Others, without official American accreditation and more concerned with recognition by their local authorities, have been successful in having their graduates admitted to high-ranking American universities and assigned to second- and third-year classes.

THE INTER-AMERICAN SCHOOLS SERVICE

If the origins, sponsors, and constitutions of these schools have been diverse, their procedures for obtaining teachers and supplies have been no less so. In the case of company and mission schools dependent upon sponsors in the United States, problems of supplying personnel and materials have been relatively simple. For independent community schools they have been more complex. To aid in the transaction of business in the United States and in all problems requiring a general or over-all knowledge of conditions in educational spheres in both continents, the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs in 1942 contracted with the American Council on Education for the development of an association of "American" schools in Latin America and the establishment of an office to serve it.

Since that time, due in part to war conditions, the original project has become a service bureau. This office is known now as the Inter-American Schools Service, working in conjunction with the Division of Cultural Cooperation of the Department of State. Its services are available to all schools in the other American countries which are sponsored by United States citizens or groups or were originally founded by them.

This office acts as a liaison agent and information center between public and private organizations and individuals in the United States and United States-sponsored schools in Latin America. It provides information for families and students moving back and forth between the United States and the other American countries. As transportation facilities permit, it will undertake the organization of general and regional conferences of teachers and administrators of American schools abroad. Even at present, through its traveling representatives, it acts as a medium for the exchange of ideas and information among these schools. It is prepared to furnish detailed information about American schools abroad to interested institutions and individuals in this country. To the schools in the field it offers technical advice in connection with building programs, information leading to the selection of qualified personnel, recommendations of teaching materials appropriate for particular needs, and the provision of educational supplies for improvements in the services and curriculums of the schools. From time to time it issues a newsletter giving information on subjects of current interest to these schools.

Established originally by government initiative and funds, the Schools Service may eventually develop, it is hoped, into an association supported by the schools served and somewhat similar in function to the Near East and China College Associations.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS

American-sponsored private schools have in the past made significant contributions to the countries in which they are located. Official representatives of the various ministries of education have testified repeatedly that the American schools in their countries have been leaders in developing new trends in education. In many countries it was they who pioneered in teacher training courses, vocational education, engineering and trade schools, preschool education, and training in agriculture and home economics. It was they who first promoted physical education, campus life, student government, parent-teacher associations, and extracurriculum activities, all of which have now become part of education in this hemisphere, in theory at least, if not in universal practice.

Although most of the sectarian schools offer the official educational program of the country in which they are located, they also give more instruction in English than is customary in the public or other private schools. Many sectarian schools are staffed almost entirely with nationals, retaining only American management and some traces of typical American ways and customs.

American-founded and -sponsored schools of this type have given thousands of young men and women an opportunity for economic, professional, and social advancement. Many of their graduates are employed by large commercial concerns, both national and foreign. Over a period of years

more than a million Latin American students have attended North American schools, and it is estimated that at present approximately 50,000 are in attendance each year. This figure does not include thousands of students in schools connected with social welfare centers or national schools provided by American companies.

These schools have contributed significantly to the promotion of friendship between the people of our countries, in spite of the fact that in all but a few exceptional cases they are housed in inferior buildings and obliged to use unsatisfactory equipment, with underpaid and overworked instructors. With nothing approaching the splendid physical plants of the German schools and their efficient and well-organized services, they have been, nevertheless, within the relatively unorganized and individualistic framework characteristic of our democracy, effective agents of good will. Even in a country as rightly self-conscious as modern Brazil, American schools have in recent years been objects of special honors on the part of national, state, and municipal governments. The head of the largest American-sponsored school in the country has been awarded the Order of the Southern Cross, highest distinction possible for a foreigner in Brazil. One of the most progressive of the Brazilian cities some months ago appointed to its committee on school buildings an American woman, the head of an American denominational school for girls. In another state the first school built under the direction of this gifted amateur architect-constructor has become the mecca of its school building experts.

The pattern varies from country to country. In Ecuador it was a group of Ecuadorans who initiated the project for an American school. The same is true of a city in northern Chile. In Peru, schools established by American Catholic orders have been unusually successful. One such school in Peru sells co-operative shares, carrying preferential enrollment privileges. These are sometimes taken by fathers as soon as their sons are born. In the case of a Protestant school in the same country parents on the waiting list plead for the privilege of buying an extra desk to fit into an already overcrowded classroom.

It is possible that as national school facilities become more adequate and as national pride and self-sufficiency increase, there will be less place for foreign-sponsored private schools. Certainly with better trained personnel in the public schools, American schools will lose something of the position of leadership and privilege which they have enjoyed. That they will still have a contribution to make in the matter of quantity and coverage and that there will be a need for such a contribution during some generations to come is clear. Their greatest and most permanent value, however, is that inherent in their very constitution, in their standing at the crossroads of two cultures, and their unique ability to interpret one to the other.

Far Eastern Studies in American Schools and Teachers Colleges*

C. O. ARNDT

*Senior Specialist in Far Eastern Education, U. S. Office of Education,
Washington, D. C.*

ONE MAJOR problem with which the schools of our country must come to grips in the days which lie ahead is a thoroughgoing, realistic study of the countries and peoples of the Far East. Thus far, a beginning has been made, but only a beginning.

The immediate effects of Pearl Harbor and the subsequent entry of the United States into war were so far-reaching and epoch-making that they could escape the attention of no man or woman living in this country. The way of life of all of us was placed in jeopardy. And to think that this condition was brought about by an attack upon our territory by a Far Eastern power! Over night our people became Far East conscious. Repercussions penetrated into the classroom and were accorded consideration by at least some teachers.

The importance of the Far East, however, apparent at the moment due to the war, may be lost sight of once again when peace returns. For the present many Americans realize the serious results of their neglect to study and understand the Far East. Our country cannot afford to let this mistake be repeated. It is the Far East—China, India, Japan, and Java—which maintains more than half of the world's total population and has done so for centuries. If these great countries, rich not only in human and cultural resources but natural resources as well, turn toward Fascism, toward the development of military might rather than the progressive physical and mental liberation of the individual, we shall be unable to maintain the way of life that is ours today and that we envision for the future.

On the positive side, the lines of communication between the peoples of the world are so closely drawn today that we may seek out those peoples with whom we can work for the realization of common purposes. The millions of Russia, of China, of India, and of other Far Eastern countries, will have to assume a new importance for us in the future if our alleged concern for the emancipation of the common man will not be restricted to Americans, but will encompass all men of good will.

The study of the Far East in our schools then, is essential if the people of this country are to make intelligent decisions regarding international rela-

*This article appeared in briefer form in the February 20, 1945 issue pages 29-31 of *Education for Victory*, a publication of the U. S. Office of Education.

tions in the postwar period. Yet what is the status of Far Eastern studies in the American schools and colleges of today?

SURVEYS OF FAR EASTERN STUDIES

No single and conclusive survey has thus far been made to determine the present status of Far Eastern studies in American schools and colleges. However, considerable recent information may be derived from a number of studies, limited in scope, which have been made in recent years. Let us consider them briefly through a review of a few of the actual study that have recently been conducted.

U. S. Office of Education Surveys

In September of 1942 the Division of Comparative Education of the U. S. Office of Education published *Studies on the Far East at Universities and Colleges in the U. S.* This study, based on announcements of courses in university and college catalogues for the school years 1940-41 to 1942-43, inclusive, revealed that 319 of the 680 universities and colleges in the U. S. and 7 of the 110 Negro institutions offered at least one course devoted specifically to work on the Far East. In addition, many institutions were found to offer courses of instruction with the Far East either mentioned or implied in the title.

During the spring and fall of 1943 a survey entitled, *An Analysis of Far Eastern Studies in Teacher Education Institutions*, was undertaken by the U. S. Office of Education in co-operation with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. The purposes of this study were: (1) to collect information regarding courses and other activities in teacher education institutions; (2) to make this information available to all teacher education institutions for such help as it might provide in planning their own programs; (3) to stimulate faculties of all teacher education institutions to afford the Far East a place in their programs commensurate with its long-range importance for our national welfare. This survey involved 250 teacher education institutions of which 118 mailed replies.

The returns received revealed that most of the teachers colleges were concerned with the Far East in one or more courses, usually in the so-called social studies courses. Eleven of the 118 colleges recorded no course of any kind dealing specifically with the Far East. In reference to purposes, most institutions made very general statements to the effect that a better understanding of the Far East and its peoples was being attempted through their instructional programs.

Among the extra-class activities, international-relations groups were most frequently mentioned as doing pertinent work. In some cases also the libraries were credited with affording helpful co-operation to both students and teachers.

Far East Institute Survey

A Survey of Studies on Southeast Asia at American Universities and Colleges, published in August, 1943, by East Indies Institute of America, New York, involved 992 universities and colleges. Of these institutions, 359 or 36 per cent responded to the questionnaire.

In response to the question, "What special courses relating specifically to Southeast Asia are given at your institution," the following results were obtained: 29 courses dealing specifically with Southeast Asia were listed, though not all of them were actually given at the moment. These courses were offered in geography, anthropology, languages, art, and other fields. The question, "Which general courses also include Southeast Asia," showed 281 courses in various fields. The question, "Would you be interested in including in your curriculum any new courses dealing with Southeast Asia," brought 87 affirmative replies and 32 conditionally affirmative replies.

The report on this survey makes the following statement by way of summary: "It may be said that while facilities for more specialized studies of Southeast Asiatic countries, peoples, cultures, and languages are still very inadequate, some progress has been made during recent years, and the ground is being prepared for further and more systematic developments."

Research Bureau of Post-War Economics Survey

In November, 1944, the Research Bureau for Post-War Economics, 90 Morningside Drive, New York 27, N. Y., published *A Survey of Asiatic Studies at American Universities and Colleges*. The questionnaire upon which this survey was based centered about the following question:

1. What special courses dealing with Asia are given at your institution?
2. Which general courses also include Asiatic problems?
3. Would you be interested in including in your curriculum any courses dealing with Asia?
 - a. in which field?
 - b. for Asia in general or for any particular part thereof?
4. Are there any research projects on Asia in progress at your institution and are there any publications on Asia being prepared by members of your staff? Please give details.
5. Please enclose any materials, reports, and memoranda prepared by your institution dealing with Asiatic problems that are available.

In the section on "Statistical Analysis of Replies" the following statements are made regarding the questionnaire.

"The questionnaire was mailed to 996 universities and colleges in the United States. 386 answers were received. Of these, 14 replies could not be included in the survey for technical and formal reasons. Among these were those replies received after May 1, 1944. The remaining 372, however,

³Heine-Geldern, Robert. *A Survey of Studies on Southern Asia at American Universities and Colleges*. New York: East Indies Institute of America. August, 1943. p. 27.

represent 37.3% of the questionnaires distributed, providing a sufficient sample of the situation. Presumably the 610 seats of learning which did not reply are less interested in the field.

"Of the 372 reporting institutions, 182, or nearly 49%, have courses dealing specifically with Asia and Asiatic problems. This does not support the conclusion that, of all the American universities and colleges, almost 49% are offering courses of this kind. Nor can it be assumed that these 182 institutions are the only ones listing courses on Asiatic problems in their curricula. But it is probable that institutions with courses on Asia answered the questionnaire more readily than those without any interest in this field.

"The total number of such courses reported is 428, an average of over 2.35 courses for each of them.

"One hundred thirteen of the 372 reporting institutions offer 231 courses which, though general, include discussion of Asiatic problems, but do not offer any courses dealing exclusively with Asia. Four hundred thirty additional general courses are reported by the institutions which do offer specialized Asiatic courses. The total number of general courses which include Asiatic problems is thus 661.

"This survey conclusively demonstrates the anxiety of many institutions to extend their activities to the field of Asia."

A number of significant generalizations are offered in the section of the report entitled *Qualitative Analysis*. Only the opening sentence of each paragraph is here quoted.

"Current studies in the Asiatic field do not show any definite purpose."

"No American university has ventured beyond the traditional offering of isolated courses on history, geography, language, etc."

"The courses are scattered, non-systematic, and incidental."

"The most neglected discipline in Asiatic studies is economics."

"Many replies complain about a shortage of competent instructors."

"The qualitative deficiency in the field is lamentable."

"The so-called social and cultural activities relating to Asia are frequently overdone."

"The analysis of the reports does not reveal any attempts by American universities and colleges to present integrated studies of Asia or of the larger regions thereof."

Survey of Educational Programs

During the fall of 1942 and the spring of 1943, a study of county, city, and state educational programs on file in the U. S. Office of Education was undertaken for the purpose of gaining an overview of the work which was being done on the Far East in our public schools on the elementary and secondary levels. It was, of course, taken for granted that much of the work

which has actually been done in classrooms in recent years has not been recorded in published units or programs of study.

What, then, according to this overview, is the status of Far Eastern studies in American public schools? With a few exceptions, it is still deplorably weak. Many well-developed units of study and outlines were found which deal with the Indian, the Eskimo, and with primitive peoples, but such centers of world population as India, China, Japan, and the East Indies were too often not even mentioned.

In many cases, moreover, when the various countries of the Far East were studied, the emphasis was largely upon unrelated facts and the unusual and unique in life and customs. Rarely was consideration given to social problems and issues, to understanding changes which can be anticipated. The importance of the countries studied for the present and future development of the United States and for sounder international relations generally, was either overlooked or so much subordinated to scattered, often inaccurate, data that their import was greatly weakened.

Deductions From the Surveys

An analysis of these surveys together with a close study of recently emerging curriculum materials on the Far East at all levels warrants the following tentative conclusions:

1. On the higher education levels most institutions are giving some attention to the history and cultures of the Far East. This is frequently done in such general courses as International Relations, American Foreign Policy, World History, and World Geography.
2. Though there is evidence of growth in the study of the Far East since 1940 on college and university levels, a keen awareness of the importance of this area when judged by course offerings exists in comparatively few institutions.
3. There is an urgent need of integrating course offerings on the Far East in colleges and universities, and thus developing a balanced program of studies.
4. On the elementary- and secondary-education levels there is evidence of a growth in emphasis on Far Eastern studies especially since Pearl Harbor. Units and programs of study of recent vintage show an improvement not only in organization but also in understanding of vital issues and acquaintance with reliable source materials.
5. Curriculum materials, including books, pamphlets, audio-visual aids, have rapidly multiplied in quantity and improved in quality during the last two years. This is particularly true of materials dealing with China.

An over-all conclusion is that much more study of the Far East is desir-

able if we are to meet the challenge of a new world which necessitates a more broadly informed citizenry.

PROPOSALS FOR CURRICULUM BUILDING

In view of the needs of the field, what specific proposals for curriculum building in the Far Eastern area, particularly on the public elementary- and secondary-school levels appear desirable and warranted? The following are submitted for the consideration of the reader.

1. *Far Eastern studies should be emphasized and developed to a degree consonant with the long-term importance of the Far East in American life.*

The sudden and large development of the study of any foreign country in our public schools is fraught with many hazards. If strong emphasis is accorded a given country only during periods of war and stress, the long-range effect cannot be otherwise than detrimental. The people of the country in question, as well as our own people, will ask, and rightly so, "Why is this country studied only in times of war and crisis and forgotten in time of peace? The civilization of this country develops more significantly and can, therefore, help you more in days of peace." Have we not heard words to this effect from our neighbors to the south on repeated occasions?

The long-term importance of the Far East to the people of our democracy grows first of all out of the fact that the human resources of this area are so tremendous. There are four Chinese in the world for every one American. The population of India is three times as great as our own. The center of the world's population is not to be found in Europe nor in the Western Hemisphere, but in the Far East. Since the system of values in our democracy accords a position of first importance to the value of individual personality—regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin—this factor of population must in turn be accorded first consideration as we assess the long-term importance to us of a given nation.

Another factor of long-term importance to our people is that of natural resources. That the productive powers of the Far East are tremendous is attested by the fact that so large a population has been sustained in this area for so many centuries, though on a comparatively low standard of living. Rubber, oil, tin, quinine, and silk are but a few of the products whose shortage is being keenly felt in this country today. Suffice it to say that the material and human resources needed for the development of a strong industrial and also military economy are abundantly present in the Far East. The manner in which they will be used in the future is definitely our business, and that of all other peace loving nations. Japan has already submitted evidence for this, if, indeed, evidence be needed.

The cultural resources of this area constitute a third reason why our in-

terest in this area must be continuous. The age-old and rich contributions of China and India, to mention but two Far Eastern countries, in the fields of philosophy, religion, and the arts constitute a treasure which is as yet largely untapped. We have studied the ancient cultures of Egypt, Greece, and Rome, and have thereby tremendously enriched Western Civilization. The present generation and many generations yet unborn have the challenge of uncovering the riches not only of Far Eastern antiquity but of its adumbrations which persist to this day with such unique vitality.

A final reason for the importance of the Far East to us, both in the present and future, grows out of the fact that this area, in turn, needs our help. Thus, for example, conditions which obtain with reference to sanitation, general education, transportation, and industrialization are generally quite primitive when measured by Western standards. The American people have made contributions to Far Eastern peoples in these areas, but much yet needs to be done.

"America," says Henry Wallace, "with her natural strength, her technical power, and her geographical position can contribute to the preservation of peace in terms of an ever-rising standard of living. The flexibility of the American domestic system which gives the whole people access to the formulation of policy through their elected representatives makes it possible for America to realize and meet her new responsibilities under a mandate from the people. The moral benefit to America herself of the assumption of leadership will not be lessened by the fact that only by making others prosperous can we preserve and increase our own prosperity."²

2. *The Far East should be studied in a context which is appropriate and meaningful to the learner, regardless of titles of the subjects or the courses.*

The subject matter potential of Far Eastern studies for our public school and college curriculums is tremendous. If, as already mentioned, the classical antiquities of Greece and Rome have provided rich content for curriculum builders of Western schools since the days of the Renaissance, then the age-old and yet-living civilizations of China, India, and Japan and other Far Eastern countries should challenge the educational profession during many years to come.

The richness of Far Eastern life and culture cannot, however, be forced into the mold of the course or courses in any one field of the public school or college curriculum. The peoples of the Far East have expressed themselves through all known art *media*, including literature, art, and music. Their vast populations alone render them a determining factor in the world of tomorrow.

²Wallace, Henry. *Our Job in the Pacific*. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations. 1944. p. 15.

We must, therefore, know something of their history and culture and their postwar plans.

Some high schools and colleges may find it possible and desirable to offer elective courses dealing with the Far East. Again, some universities, in addition to those which have already done so, will wish to develop a division or school of Far Eastern Studies. Such a development is highly necessary and desirable in order that we may train teachers and specialists in this field. Yet, the principle of studying the Far East in contexts which are appropriate and meaningful to the learner regardless of the subject or course titles would appear to be sound, especially on the elementary and secondary levels. Thus we have studied the civilizations of Europe in the past but not those of the Far East.

As Far Eastern curriculum material is made available, public school and college curriculums will find new and valuable content for such fields of study as history, literature, art, and music. The efforts of Far Eastern countries to work out common world problems will be both interesting and important to educators and other professional people in this country. It would be unwise to attempt to pour all these newly found resources into one or two courses on the Far East.

3. *The teacher should keep the avenues of communication between herself and the students of her class open, particularly during the work-planning period.*

The job of deciding what shall be studied in reference to the Far East and what procedures shall be followed is not the prerogative of the teacher alone, but of the students as well. Students will work with greater interest upon a given unit or program of study if their thinking has been enlisted in its formulation. The work will be more down to earth, closer to the real lives of the group which undertakes the study. This does not imply abdication on the part of the teacher, but a larger role in guidance and total responsibility.

The study of Far Eastern units of study recently made seems to indicate that whenever pupils were really consulted about their interests in the Far East, their comments were *ad hominem*. Thus, for example, the objectives of third- and fourth-grade pupils in a Detroit school were pointed as follows: To recognize the pupils' interest in and sympathy for the people of China by:

(1) considering the many things we have in common, (2) developing an understanding of and an appreciation for the customs and traditions of the Chinese people, (3) recognizing the many contributions the Chinese people have made to our civilization, and (4) arousing an even greater admiration for the heroism shown by the Chinese people in their fight for liberty and democracy.³

³An Introductory Literature Unit on China for Grades Three and Four. Detroit: Detroit Public Schools.

Discussion between students and teacher should not, of course, be confined to the planning period, but should be continuous. The meaning and value of that which is studied, for the individual, the community, and the country at large, should ever be borne in mind.

4. *Teacher training institutions and universities should require a thorough study of international relations, including the Far East, of every prospective teacher.*

As indicated above, the study of the Far East should not be confined to any single course on the high-school or elementary-school level but should be studied in every course in which the context warrants. To achieve this end it appears necessary to provide study experiences or required courses on international relations for all students on the college level who plan to become teachers. How, otherwise, will we be assured that youth of elementary- and high-school age will be given direction in the study of international relations in the total public school program of tomorrow? By the same token, it is highly desirable that teachers now in service become informed in this area through private study or through organized extension work and summer school courses.

It appears obvious that the teaching profession of our country which so vitally influences the mental growth of our total youth is in a uniquely strategic position to develop a generation which, while thinking of America first, will ever think simultaneously of the world context in which we all live, move, and have our being. Only thus can we anticipate and avoid the "explosions of violence" which blast the lives of men and women of good will in each generation.

The Far East has assumed a new importance in our national life. Whether such great countries as China, for example, will grow toward a way of life which is congenial with our purposes and predicated upon development through peaceful, rather than aggressive, militaristic measures, will depend in no small measure on the way in which this country co-operates with her. The role which you can play in developing understanding among our citizens of tomorrow is potentially immeasurable. What are you going to do about it?

**Is your membership in the
National Association of Secondary-School Principals
paid up?**

Why not check on this now?

If you are not paid up why not do so at once so that you will be certain to receive the monthly issues of THE BULLETIN regularly during the coming school year of 1945-46?

We appreciate your promptness.

A Round-Table Discussion on News Reporting in the Junior High School

LILLIAN C. PARHAM

Teacher of English and Social Studies, Stuart Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

THIS article¹ is a description of an assembly program of the pupil-speaker type aimed to popularize the urgent need for "news interpretation" in our classrooms. It gives a brief discussion of the sources for news material and a suggestive method of handling this material. The discussion is carried on between a chairman and five other speakers, employing the question-answer procedure, and using pupils from social studies classes to give illustrations.

SETTING

A long conference table is placed in the front of the stage with the chairman seated at the head, and the other speakers around the table. A group of students from the social studies classes are seated off to the side holding their news illustrations which they are to explain when asked to do so by one of the round-table speakers. The back and sides of the stage may be decorated with maps, charts, pictures, and other news materials to give a fitting background to the program. Large American flags on the stage will add to the program.

THE DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN—Introductory speech. During these war days we hear a great deal about the democratic way of life and how eager we are to preserve all the rights and privileges that we hold so dear. Down through the ages our forefathers formulated beliefs concerning good democratic living. At times they were willing to fight to preserve what they felt was *right* and *good* for our nation. With each succeeding generation, steps were made on the road to a better and more valuable democracy. We, the present generation, hope to make real advances in *that* scale toward a fuller democratic life. What should be one of our main goals as sincere American citizens today?

FIRST SPEAKER.—A most important goal that we should have ever before us as Americans is—"to be well informed." By that we mean to get all the information we can about what is happening in the world around us. We want "*facts*" and "*truths*." We need to know all the different sides of a question that can be obtained. From such adequate and full knowledge, we can better solve our problems. When real facts are understood, we can decide on better courses of action. Postwar problems of all kinds are under discussion by groups and committees throughout our land. If those now living are going

¹This article is a follow-up of the author's article entitled, "News Interpretation in the Junior High School," published in the March, 1944, issue of *The Bulletin*. It is an assembly program on the topic of news interpretation. Members of Mrs. Parham's one English class were trained to give the speeches noting all the important points in good speech. Students from her social studies classes were chosen to give the illustrations and to prepare their work just as they do for any class period. It is herewith presented as an example of what might be done in the way of stressing the importance of news interpretation.

to plan for a better United States and a better world, they will want to have a clear understanding of the problems that exist, and information that will help to solve those problems. Likewise individual problems must be faced.

CHAIRMAN.—What can the school do to help us get this fund of information we so urgently need?

SECOND SPEAKER.—Classrooms in our schools should make it possible for our pupils to get all the information they can on daily happenings. The special school time given over to this matter is the "current events" period. Social studies teachers particularly devote a good portion of their time to the news, and the understanding of it. But all other teachers working with their respective subjects can assist in directing attention to topics in the news whenever they fit into their separate fields of work.

CHAIRMAN.—Where can the social studies classes get their material?

THIRD SPEAKER.—In social studies classes, that is history, geography, and civics classes, teachers carefully plan to study the topics that come up in the news. There are a variety of places to which they can lead and direct their students for study.

FIRST SPEAKER.—There are pupil news magazines prepared especially for junior high-school students. They employ words and sentences that a junior high-school boy and girl can understand. Pictures, maps, and other illustrations make them interesting. These little booklets come out once a week, and give the highlights of the news of the week. A pupil who keeps up with these issues has a very fair idea of the most important items receiving attention. The names of some of these attractive publications are *Junior Review*, *Junior Scholastic*, and *World Work*. (Hold up samples of these magazines for audience to see.)

SECOND SPEAKER.—There are news magazines found in many homes that can be read by junior high-school boys and girls. Some attract attention by carrying large pictures and illustrations. Good examples of a picture type of magazine are *Life*, *Look*, and *Pic*. (Hold up samples of these magazines.)

THIRD SPEAKER.—Practically all homes take at least one newspaper, if not more. Some boys and girls develop the habit of reading accounts in the newspaper. Others find that they can do so rather easily after their work with a classroom news magazine.

FOURTH SPEAKER.—The radio too, is found in almost every home. Listening to news broadcasts is a custom in the average family life.

FIFTH SPEAKER.—Movie going is a popular pastime among all junior high-school students. At the movies, news reels are shown that make people and places in the news very vivid. With so many places available to get the news, every pupil should find no trouble in getting reports.

CHAIRMAN.—How can the news material be used in the classroom?

FOURTH SPEAKER.—Training taken step by step under the teacher's direction will help the pupils to acquire habits of "news getting" that will be of benefit

to them all through their lives. Certain types of news interpretation can receive special consideration at a time. When one kind is mastered another can be selected. When all kinds have been taught, pupils may then choose any type they want for the report of the coming day. The different types of news interpretation which have proven valuable in the classroom are:

1. Reporting on the magazine article.
2. Reporting on the newspaper article.
3. Explaining the news cartoon.
4. Reporting on the radio news broadcast.
5. Describing important pictures in the news.
6. Reporting on the movie news reel.
7. Learning to recognize important characters in the news.
8. Giving a map study before the class.
9. Drawing and explaining an original cartoon.

CHAIRMAN.—Explain more fully how some of the different kinds of "news reporting" might be dealt with by the pupils.

FIFTH SPEAKER.—It is wise to take up the news article first, because the class is expected to subscribe to a school news magazine to help them with their current-events study. Some pupils are weak in reading ability and need this additional simple reading material. For this reason the children's news magazine is a good starting point. In the study assignment on the news article, the pupils are asked to be able to tell the title of the article on which they wish to report—and its main points. Discussion can bring out the types of articles that would be suitable and important enough to bring to the attention of the class. This procedure emphasizes the big issues, national and international in nature. How to pick out the most important points of an article needs to be explained. Oral recitations in front of the class follow, the teacher commending recitations well done or offering suggestions where improvement could be made.

CHAIRMAN.—We shall now have an example of a student reporting on a "magazine article." (Chosen pupil gives his report.)

SECOND SPEAKER.—The photograph or the picture of a famous person in the news could be the topic in the current-events period. Pupils are asked to find a picture of some person who is outstanding in the news, and to prepare a brief talk to be given in class, emphasizing those points that prove the person to be important. Much news comes from this simple assignment.

CHAIRMAN.—Here is an example of a pupil reporting on a famous person in the news. (Chosen pupil gives his report.)

THIRD SPEAKER.—The radio could come next. Class discussion can bring out facts concerning the various radio stations and the times at which each station puts on its news broadcasts. Names of the leading commentators can be learned and remembered, along with the times of the day they can be heard. Here again the study plan is: title of the broadcast and brief account of it.

CHAIRMAN.—Now an example of reporting on the news is heard over the radio. (Pupil gives his report.)

FOURTH SPEAKER.—Next the class might be directed to the newspaper to prepare a report on a picture inserted in the news. The picture should be mounted on cardboard or stiff paper and held up before the class during the recitation on it. The pupil is asked to read the caption and give a brief account of the incident depicted.

CHAIRMAN.—Here is an example of a report on a picture inserted in the news. (The pupil reports.)

FIFTH SPEAKER.—Vital information can be obtained from the map, graph, or diagram. This information serves to make the news story more clear. In dealing with the map, pupils are instructed to go to a large wall map and locate the particular areas that are shown on the small maps they chose from either the newspaper or magazine. The small newspaper maps can be used as patterns. The pupils can transfer those ideas over to the large map.

CHAIRMAN.—Here's an example of reporting on a map. (Pupil reports.)

CHAIRMAN.—Likewise the graph, the diagram, and the chart furnish news topics to discuss. (Pupils report.)

SIXTH SPEAKER.—Reporting on the newspaper article follows the same plan as that used for the magazine article. Here is an example of reporting on a newspaper article. (Pupil makes his report.)

SEVENTH SPEAKER.—The class work with the cartoon proves especially interesting. Pupils' choices are mounted and brought to class. First there is a brief discussion on cartooning, bringing out why cartoons are published and how cartoonists get their ideas. A short outline is used in the preparation of the report. It follows in order of these questions: (1) What is the caption? (2) What does the picture show? and (3) What does the cartoon mean? This is an example of reporting on a cartoon. (Pupil reports.)

In time pupils can try their own hands at original cartooning. Often pupils even surprise themselves at their results. Here is an example of an original cartoon and its explanation. (Pupil reports.)

EIGHTH SPEAKER.—For added interest, bulletin boards can carry displays of pupils' work. Notebooks of all kinds can be made on a chosen field of interest. (Point to pupil illustrations given around the stage.)

CHAIRMAN.—(*Closing speech.*) This kind of regular treatment of the news attains good results. It should make boys and girls much more intelligent students of current affairs, because of the daily training given by the teacher. It should make them eager and willing to read and listen to the news each day. We hope that more and more of our boys and girls will receive such training in our schools, so they may develop into well-informed men and women of tomorrow.

How the School Cafeteria Can Help in Educating Pupils

CLAIRE L. COX

Chairman of the Home Economics Department in the Macfarland Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

ASCHOOL CAFETERIA isn't just a place to eat if you can't get home to lunch. It isn't a business competitor to the neighborhood eating places. It isn't just a place to build up underweight pupils nor a place to feed the poor ones. At least that's what it shouldn't be! In fact, it should be much more than an eating place. Every pupil—every teacher needs relaxation, sociability, diversion, changes of posture, thought, surroundings, and occupation. What better place to get these than in the cafeteria? But too many schools regard the cafeteria as being an organization entirely separate from the school. The school is one thing with all its classrooms, activities, materials, and clubs and the cafeteria is another. Even here in Washington they are separate. Children's knowledge of history, arithmetic, art, and the like are regarded as being so important that teachers must have college degrees, but we go out and employ good commercial managers for our cafeterias, pay them much less than we pay teachers, and provide no tenure of office. We are satisfied if they serve reasonably good food and show a profit at the end of the year. Yet they have much to do with the health and lifelong nutritional habits of our children. The writer sometimes wonders whether we put "first things first." She also wonders why we haven't considered the cafeteria as being a more integral part of the school. The war has brought about an increased understanding of nutrition throughout the nation. It has made us realize the importance of food as related to health. Along with this increased understanding will come deeper interest in the school lunchroom's educational possibilities, and closer co-operation between the staff and the faculty. The managers of the school cafeterias in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, have this to say: "Before any high-school cafeteria can become a success it must be understood and well thought of by the entire school and the community it serves. This we feel is best accomplished through knowledge, service, and constructive criticism and active participation by all the departments of the school."

WHY THE CAFETERIA SHOULD EDUCATE

Homemaking classes teach the need for good food choices to all pupils enrolled in them. But unfortunately they don't reach all the pupils in the school. Health and nutrition are matters of concern to everyone. The lunchroom has the advantage of reaching all the pupils, and through them it indirectly reaches (at least some of) the homes. Children learn to do by doing, and the cafeteria is the only department of the school where nutrition information reaching practically all the pupils can be put into actual practice under the school's jurisdiction. For thousands of young people the noon

intake at school constitutes the most adequate meal of the day. This is especially true now that many mothers are working and have little time to prepare suitable meals at home. Besides, many parents either don't know about nutritional needs, or don't bother to enforce right habit formation. G. W. Grill writing in *School Executive* (October, 1940) said: "High School is more than Latin and algebra, and education is more than history and chemistry. . . . School is more than preparation for life—it is really a part of life itself." This is especially true of high-school students because most of their waking hours during the school day are spent in school or in school activities. This is all the more reason for using every minute of their "working" days to help train them for better living.

Aside from directly educating in the lunchroom, the quality of the food itself is important. Dr. Mary Schwartz Rose wrote that "The machinery of education is wasted if it operates on a mind listless from hunger or befogged by indigestible food, whether the cause be carelessness, poverty, or ignorance." Educators everywhere are recognizing the relationships between poor feeding and fatigue, depression, and lack of alertness. And we should remember that prevention is easier, more economical, and more feasible than treatment after bodily defects have occurred. Ruth Farnham (Director of School Cafeterias in Cleveland Heights, Ohio) has an excellent slogan—"Good food habits will add years to one's life and good food will add life to the years as they roll by."

There is still another phase to the need for cafeteria educational work. Arthur Jersild wrote (in *Teachers College Record*, October, 1942): "Needless to say, a child's ability to 'take it' (in wartime) will be influenced profoundly by physical factors, including his state of health, the extent to which he can obtain proper rest, and the degree to which he obtains an adequate diet. A population that is partially starved obviously will show diminished emotional hardihood. . . . The need for nourishment is not merely a physical need but also an emotional necessity." Immature young people don't "just naturally" make wise food choices. We cannot expect them to form the right habits without help. Every department in the school has a share in developing good habits. Note that the statement is "every department in the school." The cafeteria "belongs," too.

HOW THE CAFETERIA CAN EDUCATE

In a report of some food studies printed in the *Journal of Geography* (September, 1938) Rothwell wrote that "Under wise guidance, an interest in foods may be stimulated in any group of children regardless of the grade level, and if kept close to their experiences, directed into many worth-while channels." Even though this is true, there are certain policies that should be followed. The lunchroom should not be a money making concession. If it is, the idea of profit will often outweigh ideas of nutrition. The manager

must be carefully chosen. "She should be a thoroughly competent woman who knows her dietetics; possesses tact, understanding, and patience; gets along well with faculty, students, and tradesmen; and follows modern business procedures." But even then she needs the backing and co-operation of school administrators, teachers, and even custodians. (We have teachers in our school who don't like our manager and go so far as to refuse to eat the foods served there. How can we expect their pupils to co-operate with the cafeteria program when teachers openly sneer at everything planned?) The staff must be held to high standards of cleanliness, workmanship, and co-operation. There must be plenty of highly nutritive food served at a minimum of cost. No soft drinks and no "hot dogs" or candy except as a last resort to keep pupils away from less desirable neighborhood places. Protective foods should be featured constantly, by including milk and vegetables wherever possible, putting them first on the counter (instead of desserts), and by making attractive servings (for we eat with our eyes!). After all, it is the composition of the meal that counts and not the fact that it is hot or cold, cheap or expensive.

Dr. Agnes Morgan (Head of the Home Economics Department in the University of California) says that "Intelligence in choice of food is even more important than increased income." Children can be "tricked" into good choices—which in time may become so well liked that they'll be habitual. At least half an hour should be allowed for lunch. Shorter time causes hasty choices, and nervous, hurried eating which is anything but beneficial. If necessary, stagger the lunch hours so that only as many students as can be comfortably handled will be in the lunchroom. Make the place attractive—it will help a lot to determine the conduct and attitudes. The drug store and hot lunch stand may serve poor food, but there is a novel atmosphere that many children like. Give underprivileged students a chance to work for their food, without any stigma attached. But see to it that they get balanced lunches. If necessary to discipline the lunchroom, do it as easily as possible, making constructive criticisms, appealing to reason and to good sense, using humor rather than coercion. Don't make unnecessary rules.

DEVICES

Teaching and administrative co-operation will be needed if the cafeteria is to function in the most complete educational sense. But it seems to be a difficult aim to secure. Various school principals speak of troubles caused by certain teachers demanding special dishes or services or complaining about trivial matters. The question might be raised as to why we, as a class, are so childish when we are commissioned to be examples and guides for pupils. One article recently read by the writer mentioned putting out pieces of blank paper on the teachers' lunch tables on Fridays, asking for comments and suggestions. Our school has tried this and received a list of the most ridiculous and impractical ideas that one could imagine.

There are many devices for helping pupils to choose good lunches. The writer chuckled over Mary Sweeny's diagnosis of one of the phases of adolescence. "Eating what one wishes is a symbol of increasing personal independence as a child grows older, so that American mothers decrease their pressure on a child to 'drink his milk,' and American adolescents break as many food rules as possible." Our seventh-grade pupils, when they enter junior high school, feel very important the first time they go through the cafeteria lines. We must make them think about what they're choosing—not in the light of "Does it look good?", but rather "What will it do for me?" The old idea of "Eat it because it's good for you" must give way to the new one "Eat right to achieve maximum strength." Posters help a lot, particularly if made by the pupils themselves. Sample trays displayed in the hall cases or on the counter are good. Articles in the school paper will help. Menus may be posted on the bulletin boards, sent to classrooms for guidance talks, or used as ideas for English themes.

Inexpensive plate lunches are highly advisable, because they are balanced combinations, nutritionally adequate, economical in time and money, both for the cafeteria and the pupil. Incidentally, they are an excellent means of introducing and popularizing new foods. Clever garnishes, varying the types of serving dishes, and serving new combinations are other means of getting pupils to eat what they should. Checking trays as they go by the cashier—giving "Grade A" lunch tickets to good ones and "Blackout" tickets (black border and the slogan "Something is Missing") to the poor ones will help to make pupils think. If protective foods still don't sell as well as they should, sell them at a minimum price and increase the costs of desserts.

Staff workers or home economics or physical education teachers might watch pupils going through the lines—follow the obviously unhealthy child with the wrong lunch and sit beside him for a little common-sense talk. The school medical examination might give us data helpful in assisting pupils. After all, we're selling good health—or should! The writer makes it a point to cashier in the cafeteria one lunch period each day so that she can watch dietary habits. Home economics teachers should be vitally interested in what pupils are eating. Another device is to watch returned trays and soiled dishes to see what foods are not liked, and then use this information as a basis for improving them. Contests and plays in the auditorium are still other means of stimulating thoughtful dietary selections.

OUTCOMES

It seems reasonable to believe that young people who are "exposed" to such a program five days a week and thirty-eight weeks a year, are bound to establish habits that will carry over into later life. It is also certain that their health status and work (both quality and quantity) should definitely improve during the school years. Many of our social occasions center around

food intake and if we stimulate good eating conduct without doing anything else we've helped to make better adults. We're developing self-reliance of the right sort when we teach youngsters who've just left mother's decisions and protection to choose wisely for themselves, carry their own trays, pay the cashier. We're helping to establish the sense of fair play when we require pupils to keep in line at the counter, await their turn, move quickly so as not to delay others, leave clean tables, and pay for broken dishes. Maybe the writer has placed too much emphasis upon daily food selection. But it does seem of great importance because the building of lifelong attitudes about food may start right here.

The cafeteria also offers an excellent opportunity for character guidance. Problem pupils can be given work to do, and may even work up to positions of responsibility. They could keep records, make up 'counter sheets,' check trays, do some of the simple phases of bookkeeping, and other duties. Courtesy, table etiquette, and sociability are other desirable outcomes. To pupils from low-class homes, the cafeteria may be an "eye-opener" as to standards of cleanliness, varieties of foods served, and the like. Don't say that the cafeteria doesn't "belong" in an educative sense!

DIFFICULTIES

Of course there are difficulties that make these outcomes almost impossible to achieve. One of the most important is that of making pupils distinguish between "hollow hunger" and "hidden hunger." The writer knows of a few badly underweight pupils whose parents spoil them and let them eat exactly what they like. One of them told the writer recently (when we had to alter the smallest sewing pattern to make it even smaller for her) that she never drank milk because she didn't like it.

The school will always have to compete with the neighborhood drug store because of its coca-colas, sodas, cigarettes and other articles which it sells and the unsupervised atmosphere. (Wouldn't we do well to restrict pupils to school premises at noon?) There will always be a rough element—boys who misbehave so much that the better pupils object to being near them. Then too, no matter how much parents insist upon good food selections, no matter how much we stress wise lunches, many pupils will still buy two hamburgers, a dish of mashed potatoes, and a piece of layer cake—because they like them. One way to get around this is to sell the parents on the wisdom of a weekly lunch ticket. Sell it at a bargain rate, but make the reservation that it must cover a palte lunch and milk each day. Then, the pupil may use extra money for dessert if he and his parents so desire. We do this at our school, but unfortunately don't sell very many tickets.

It is difficult to secure co-operation, for some teachers resent it when the cafeteria hasn't labor facilities for making up special orders for them. These teachers neglect the various phases of cafeteria guidance.

An Instructional Program for the Secondary School

HAROLD I. LEIMAN

Principal, Mesivta High School, Brooklyn, New York

*On the average, the less competent a pupil has shown himself to be in meeting school tasks, the more quickly he is released to face adult problems. Those who will be least able to acquire socially useful habits, information, and points of view without formal instruction are those to whom the school has given least attention.—The New York State Regents Inquiry, **When Youth Leave School**, p. 68.*

IN SPITE of the fact that four fifths of the student body will not go to college, our secondary schools are for the most part still catering to the needs of students preparing for college. College entrance requirements which ignore present day values determine the course of study in modern high schools. An instructional program which should be centered about the preparation of youth for life in modern society is instead centered about the arbitrary demands of a group unconcerned with social needs of youth.

Under these conditions where a new type of pupil demands a new instructional program, one would expect state education departments to assume leadership. They should with the assistance of teachers and informed and experienced members of the laity develop a curriculum which they feel is best suited to the needs of the pupils of their individual states. They should introduce the program in all the secondary schools of the state and advise the colleges that they will have to accredit the new curriculum for admission. Of course, the colleges could set qualitative standards in the form of grades and general examinations.

The more important values to be cultivated by this program are selected from those submitted in an earlier article, "A Value System for Our Times," by the author and are herewith presented:

1. Transmission of the social heritage
2. Maintenance of good health
3. Objective thinking and scientific attitude
4. Preparing for life and the effective use of material goods
5. Appreciation of social interdependence
6. Understanding democracy as equality
7. Philosophic concept of freedom and rights of minorities

The suggested curriculum consists of four major areas to be stressed in each school year. Electives and extracurriculum activities should be added as the needs of the particular school or locality demand. The program reflects what this writer feels that every youth in an American democracy is entitled to get from a secondary education.

SUGGESTED OUTLINE OF AN INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM
FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Ninth Year

- Reading (How to improve our reading ability)
Government (How the city, state, and Federal governments work)
Arithmetic (Solving everyday problems through arithmetic)
Fine Arts (Appreciation of beauty and orderliness in art, music, and the universe)

Tenth Year

- Functional Grammar (How to write a sentence)
Geography (Knowing the world in which we live)
The Human Body (How our body works and how to care for it)
World of Science (Outline of the important progress of the sciences)

Eleventh Year

- Spoken English (How to use sentences to express thoughts orally)
Current Literature (Examples of good current writing and what makes them good)
Growth of The United States (How our nation developed and the forces responsible for its progress)
Our Economic World (How the world carries on its business — man depends on man; nation upon nation)

Twelfth Year

- Written English (How to use sentences to express thoughts in writing)
Classical Literature (Some of the world's great books and what makes them great)
American Democracy (The democratic principles upon which our government was founded and their application in present-day living)
Governments of the World (How people are governed in other parts of our world)

To implement the above program some changes will have to be made in present methods of teaching. These will be discussed later. However, some of the highlights of the new program will first be discussed briefly. There is no scientific background for the grade placement of these subjects. This is still a moot question as far as secondary schools are concerned. Only painstaking research will shed any light.

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE PROGRAM

Reading

"It has been found that a great many pupils in these schools have reading abilities of the fifth- or even of the fourth-grade level."¹ Not only is it true

¹American Council on Education, *What the High School Ought to Teach*, Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1940. p. 12.

that many pupils are poor readers, but also that the good readers can improve. The failure of student even at the college level has often been attributed to the inability to read. Training in reading must extend beyond the elementary-school level. It is basic to all other studying that the high-school student will do.

Arithmetic

The over-crowded condition in public elementary schools is responsible for mass promotions and the sending off to high school of pupils who are ill-prepared, especially in arithmetic. There are also many arithmetical life problems for which the elementary-school pupil is still immature. It is, therefore, logical to expect that the basic principles of arithmetic be reviewed and expanded in the ninth year to develop the skills needed in everyday living. The abstract algebra course given in the ninth year is misplaced and assumes an arithmetic background in the elementary-school graduate which is unwarranted.

Fine Arts

The ultimate aim of this course is not to produce artists but to cultivate a taste and sensitivity for the artistic and beautiful; to guide the pupil in the perception of symmetry and harmony in his dress, personality, and immediate surroundings; and to foster a desire to seek spiritual uplift in works of art and music.

Functional Grammar

In the field of English our educational system merits the greatest criticism. Our students learn English for eight years in elementary school; four years in high school; four years in college, and then many of them cannot distinguish a sentence from a phrase or express themselves in good English. We have tried to avoid teaching formal grammar and have succeeded to the extent of teaching practically no grammar. The result is sadly reflected in our graduates. While much grammar has little practical value, there is a core which is basic and without which only the exceptional can master the language. According to Ward, the nature of the subject and the immaturity of the pupil's mind are such that functional grammar cannot be effectively taught until the early high-school years. But it must be mastered there, if the pupil is to avoid difficulties in his student career.

Geography

The present World War has made us all more geography conscious than ever before. It has emphasized for us, simultaneously, the importance of the subject and our colossal ignorance of it. The important factors in geography are such that the elementary-school pupil is unable to appreciate their significance. Yet we would not fulfill our obligation to our students if we did not give them the geographic background for living in a world so closely united by air transport and communication. The logical place for such a

course is in the high school. The geography course must also stress the concept of interdependence of nations.

The Human Body

It is remarkable how we permit our youth to grow into adulthood ill-informed or misinformed on such a vital subject as the functioning of their own bodies. Our secondary schools must emphasize the mechanism of the body; the importance of keeping the body in good condition; the basic requirements for good health; and the latest scientific discoveries in regard to health.

World of Science

Here the pupil should learn the scientific explanation of everyday phenomena; the scientific method of attacking problems; and the great strides of science and important problems that are yet to be solved.

Spoken English

From early childhood until he has practically ceased doing anything else, the human being keeps on speaking. So much more time is devoted to speaking than to either writing or reading that it seems obvious that the school must not neglect this vital activity. The student must learn to speak with reasonable fluency, with clear enunciation, and with a pronunciation that does not draw attention because of its provincial or affected character.

ISSUES VERSUS TRADITION

Two standbys of the traditional high-school curriculum are tossed into the scrap heap. They are:

Foreign Languages

These subjects have a great tradition and very active teacher organizations which keep them in the high schools. But functionally they are dead. The high-school student has little use for foreign languages in the normal American life. What he has learnt in high school quickly vanishes with disuse. Those who have a very special reason for learning a foreign language can well take it in college where specialization is emphasized.

Mathematics

Algebra, geometry, and trigonometry are rarely used by the average high-school graduate. There is no justification for burdening all high-school students with subject matter that should be reserved for the specialists in college.

What about the cultural value of foreign languages? What shall we do with all the foreign-language and mathematics teachers? To the first question an answer is that the cultural values are better taught directly in the social studies than indirectly by the acquisition of rudiments of language. In reply to the second question, one might ask, "For whom do we run our schools?" But we need not be so brutal. We will allow time in the transition period for foreign language and excess mathematics teachers to adapt themselves to the teaching of one of the other subjects of the curriculum. The bulk of the mathematics teachers will probably be absorbed in the teaching of arithmetic.

WHAT ABOUT THE TWENTY PER CENT WHO WILL GO TO COLLEGE?

The program should be realistic. When administered by proper teachers and methods, it fosters those values that a democratic society finds desirable for its youth. Shall the education of the college-preparatory youth ignore or even minimize these values? Shall the academically minded student be confined to an ivory tower of culture, while his less studious brother is prepared for the world he lives in? If educators have evolved a program that is best for youth in a modern world, that program must not be denied to college-preparatory pupils. This writer feels that colleges can choose their candidates on the basis of high-school recommendation and achievement under any satisfactory program.

However to pacify those who fear that the student who looks forward to college will be neglected under the new program, the following alternatives are suggested:

1. In a large city system several high schools might be set aside for students of higher calibre who will be given an enriched program. Students are to be admitted to these schools on the basis of examinations. Though this procedure tends toward stratification, it will be to the advantage of youth to learn as soon as possible that society rewards ability, and that in our industrial world promotions are not made *en masse* but that recognition is given each individual accordingly as he merits it.

2. Each school might offer an elective program of mathematics and foreign language for those students who intend to go to college.

BROADER ASPECTS OF METHOD

While a vital curriculum is needed for modern youth, it cannot be effective unless administered by good teachers. This is not the place to discuss method in detail, but the broader outlines may be sketched. In general, Teachers will:

1. Use visual and concrete materials
2. Encourage pupils to learn by doing
3. Make learning applicable to daily living
4. Make greater effort to individualize instruction
5. Show more interest in the pupil than in the subject
6. Serve as guide and friend to student rather than being a taskmaster

Pupils will:

1. Participate in meaningful projects
2. Look upon school work as preparation for living
3. Find places for themselves in the school community
4. Cease to regard the teacher as an enemy to be outwitted.
5. Learn co-operation in the school community

The school will be a democratic community where an interchange of ideas between teachers and pupils will serve as the basis for the formulation of conclusions; where each child will have a sense of belonging and responsibility.

Proposal for a Curriculum Commission

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

Director, Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

Formerly, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York City

ONCE MORE, with the publication of *Planning for American Youth*¹ by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and *Education for All American Youth*² by the Educational Policies Commission, the critical problem of the secondary-school curriculum moves into the spotlight. Sharply criticized for years and largely condemned by many authorities, the traditional curriculum still furnishes the core of the educational program of the large majority of high schools in the country. It is strongly supported by tradition—in the public as well as in the profession. It constitutes a vested interest of teachers, who are skilled in narrow subject matter fields, and it is placidly accepted by millions who have never thought their way through to a basic social and educational philosophy, and who have never glimpsed that bright vision of what education can pragmatically contribute to modern civilization.

The criticism has accumulated from the days of Benjamin Franklin. It has been increasing both in amount and in acuity during the past decades and can no longer be ignored. Sooner or later it will break tradition and, unless a sound substitute is ready, it will sweep away much of the good along with the relatively valueless. The old curriculum has had tremendous support from two classes of the public, those who are proud to have survived the rigors of the prescribed regimen, and those who are too humbled by their failure to offer spoken criticism. Both classes have been content largely because they had no better proposal with which to compare what they were offered and required to study. But now proposals for new curriculums are being popularized.

One influence likely to be potent in curriculum reform is that of the men returned from the military forces. They have experienced courses and methods of instruction devised to achieve in the shortest possible time objectives of recognized worth. Some of these highly practical courses and many of these methods—especially the use of visual and of concrete materials and of the requirement of perfection instead of a seventy per cent passing mark—will be of value to secondary schools, and it is reasonable to expect that veterans will demand something similar for themselves, if they return to school,

¹*Planning for American Youth*, 1944, 64 pp. 25 cents. Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.

²*Education for All American Youth*, 1944, 421 pp. \$1.00. Washington 6, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.

and for their children. A grave danger is that in their enthusiasm for the practical they will lose sight of cultural elements which make life most worth living.

THE CURRICULUM HAS BEEN REFINED IN DETAILS

It must not be assumed that courses of study in secondary schools have not been improved. They have been improved marvelously; as a matter of fact, within the limits of the traditional curriculum they are far on the road to perfection. To this improvement the modern textbook has made great contribution. Comparing courses of today with those at the beginning of the century, anyone must recognize a tremendous difference.

THE OLD GARMENT IS MERELY PATCHED

Because of a recognition that the traditional core curriculum does not even measurably satisfy the actual needs of people, secondary schools have supplemented it with extracurriculum activities, usually informal, often unprovided for in the time schedule, and usually so inadequately directed by the principal that they depend for value chiefly on the ingenuity of the individual teacher in charge. It cannot be maintained that they have articulated with the formal courses so as to constitute a satisfactorily rounded curriculum. Schools have also introduced many new courses of study that in varying degree have contributed to certain practical needs. But these likewise have seldom been incorporated into a unified and balanced curriculum. Not infrequently they are considered, especially by other teachers, to be intruding poor relations that are tolerated but not welcomed into the respectability of the family.

THE CURRICULUM ITSELF IS OUTWORN

It is not in courses of study or in small unit lesson plans or in projects that reform is primarily needed. It is in the basic curriculum itself, that is, in the complete, unified set of experiences that are used to achieve the desired development of every youth as a happy effective member of our democratic society.

The traditional curriculum sought, and still primarily seeks, mastery of certain organized bodies of subject-matter, usually isolated one from another and to a large extent from practical application. A youth succeeds or fails in school according to his ability to learn and to retain until examination time enough mathematics, science, history, foreign language, and the like to "pass" the tests that are set to his memory. Although in recent years a certain amount of application to practical affairs has been introduced, chiefly by way of illustration, students are expected to retain what they have learned and to find for themselves uses in such contingencies as life may bring. When the contingency arises, what might have been useful has to a large extent been forgotten. And forgotten learning has no more value than lost money. Many

details have no probability of ever being needed by any except the small number who proceed to advanced scholarly specialization.

First of all in making the new curriculum, we must agree on what secondary education should contribute to civilization in our times and in our country, and before that is possible, we must agree far more generally than we now do on what we want our civilization to be. Until the people understand and approve the meaning of democracy and what its implications are for the social, economic, political, and moral life of our nation, the task of building a satisfactory school program and of getting it into practice is an impossible one. No curriculum can be effective or even sensible until the desired end achievement is clearly stated and generally approved. The best proposed programs of secondary-school curriculum reform have often been wrecked before they were fairly launched because factions of the thinking public, who furnish the children as well as the financial support, were not convinced that the proposed program would lead to results that they considered good.

To state clearly the alternative ideals toward which our civilization may strive, with the practical implications of each, so that the sovereign people may understand and consider them and make a deliberate, reasoned choice, is the function of philosophers. To perform their function, they will have to come down to earth, trim away the elaborations of philosophic subtlety, and speak the language of those they wish to influence. Only after popular agreement can there be developed an educational program that will contribute materially, effectively, and economically to the achievement of those ideals.

It is a tragic phenomenon that so many people are content to approve a stated ideal or principle, and then apparently to feel that it is unnecessary to do anything further about it. This phenomenon is recognized no less among school people than among those who listen to sermons on Sunday. But if education is to become the vital force that it can be in preserving and in promoting our democratic civilization, it must develop a new program that contributes actually and maximally to the achievement of nationally approved ideals.

WHO SHALL DEVELOP THE NEW PROGRAM?

Who shall develop this program? Who *can* develop it? It is a popular theory among many educationists today that it should be developed by the teachers who are to put it into effect. This theory is supported by the argument that it is democratic, though it is difficult to see that it has anything to do with democracy. A second argument is that it will lead to professional growth, which it probably does to the extent that teachers are able to participate effectively. A third argument is that it will result in more effective teaching because the program is best understood and supported with most enthusiasm by those who developed it. All this is pleasing ideal, but for several reasons it is impracticable.

In the first place, realism must bring recognition of the unescapable fact that classroom teachers alone are not competent to do the foundation thinking necessary to lay the foundations before a curriculum structure can be erected. Few people in the whole nation, for that matter, are competent to do it. And after the foundations are laid, it must be further recognized that hardly any school—or local group of schools, for that matter—can muster enough teachers who are sufficiently inventive and ingenious to create the learning units that will be needed for the new curriculum. Tradition and vested interests in their accustomed fields would be a severe hindrance to even the potentially competent. The effective workers must be not only creative, and able to shake off tradition, but also possessed of an abundant fund of knowledge, both basic and supplementary, and of extended experience in life as it is actually lived by people outside academic halls.

In the second place, not all teachers desire the responsibility of such assignment. Instances are not unknown of teachers rebelling against directions to undertake curriculum revision in addition to their other duties. An unwilling spirit will defeat the most idealistic program. And nothing is more likely to develop discouragement and lessened enthusiasm for other work than compulsion to undertake what one knows he cannot do and what he has no desire to attempt.

A third reason why this proposal is impracticable is that teachers do not have adequate time or energy to undertake extra work of such importance and difficulty. However loyal and eager they may be to contribute professionally, they already have full-time jobs. When a conscientious teacher has taught a full schedule, usually of five or six exacting and tense periods, given attention to the peculiar problems of individual pupils, directed some extra-curriculum activity, corrected papers, prepared fresh lesson plans for the next day, and attended to the details of reports and other administrative requirements, he has little time or strength to devote to a task that challenges the most and the best that anyone has. Moreover, if teachers are to remain human, they must have some part of the day for their own private lives. Teachers are not expected in the interstices of their regular duties to do janitorial work or to carry brick and mortar for a new building. Why should they be expected to find time and energy for the infinitely more important and exhausting work of building a new curriculum? Demands that they attempt this have usually resulted in more frustration than effective production.

In some cases administrators have been able to release selected teachers from a part of their regular duties for the purpose of enabling them to work on the curriculum, and there are significant instances of teachers who without extra financial compensation have spent their holidays and vacations at the task. Many have helped produce improved courses of study, but few are satisfied that they have achieved fully what is needed. None are known to

have got far with a reconstruction of the fundamental curriculum, which gives meaning and significance to courses of study and to individual projects. The task requires far more, even of the most competent, than can be salvaged from a teaching schedule.

Attempts of school systems, local and even state-wide, to develop new programs for the education of youth by classroom teachers have in very few instances resulted in curriculums that are significantly different from the conventional. The teachers, it is true, have produced improved courses of study, that is, organizations of subject matter on such subjects as English and mathematics and home economics; but they have done little with the invention of basically sound, comprehensive, and well-balanced curriculums that promise to contribute significantly to the betterment of society as well as of all youth. Only such curriculums can give meaning and practical significance to courses of study. The notable fact that the locally developed courses have had small influence on country-wide practices can be explained only by the recognized need of something more fundamental.

Local teacher-made curriculums, and even courses of study, rarely, if ever, sufficiently take into account the wishes and judgments of the supporting society. They chiefly set down their own ideas, as if the curriculum belonged to them. But schools belong to society and are its agency for developing such a civilization as they want, and so it follows that society must be enabled democratically to contribute to the making of the curriculum.

Local programs for large curriculum reform have almost invariably bogged down in the preliminary study of the literature of theory. The teachers have been like the man who ran a mile to get up impetus to jump over a mountain: when they got to the main task, if they ever did, they were exhausted. Not only that, they were frequently confused by contradictory theory and frustrated by their recognized inability to do what they knew ought to be done.

Moreover, these local independent efforts to lay a foundation for the new curriculum have been uneconomical and even wasteful, even though they have doubtless resulted in larger and more general understanding of the difficulties in the problem. The sum of the total cost of time and effort by teachers in numerous schools working independently would easily pay for a more effective centralized effort by experts, the results of which would be generally available to all schools in the entire country.

All this does not mean that teachers should not have a part, and an important part, in developing the new curriculum. Certainly they should understand the proposed philosophy of secondary education and after reflection and discussion make such modifications as demand their respect and intelligent enthusiasm. Then, profiting from the raw materials that have been prepared and supplementing them from their own experience and invention, they will

have responsibility for organizing and administering such units as are most likely to forward the development of the students, whatever their native gifts and environment background, toward becoming happy and effective men and women. This is the job that expert teachers are competent to do. It is important enough to demand the best that is in them.

A PROPOSAL

If teachers cannot be expected to produce the desired curriculum reform, who can? The answer to this question is clear: *a staff of the ablest professional men and women of the nation working continuously on a full-time basis.* And such a staff must have unhurried advice from the best philosophers, psychologists, sociologists, economists, statesmen, and representatives of the lay public.

Such a staff would, of course, be difficult to select and assemble. The workers necessary are already holding important positions in school systems and in colleges and universities. Their present employers would be loath to give them up, and many of them would be reluctant to make the sacrifice of moving from their homes and circles of friends. But both employers and competent workers will be influenced by the paramount importance of the challenge, and the workers themselves must have financial reward adequate to compensate for tearing themselves away from their accustomed surroundings.

Obviously the staff should include the most competent research workers that can be found or developed. Only one who has delved deeply into the curriculum problem realizes how many questions there are that must be answered by research before a sound curriculum can be built. Some contributions have already been made, but they have seldom been adequately or generally applied; consequently, the staff must also have "development engineers," such as industry uses to evaluate the published results of research and to translate those that are substantiated into practical application.

In *Secondary Education*³ and in a magazine article "If There Were Millions,"⁴ the author has set forth the steps which are needed to be taken in developing the new curriculum, and significant contributions are made by two reports of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals: *The Issues in Secondary Education*⁵ and *The Functions of Secondary Education*.⁶ Those and other similar proposals would have to be considered, and then the staff of the Curriculum Commission would decide on a long-term and comprehensive program. The development of such a program should be continuous, for new conditions will from time to time require changes in the best proposals that can at any

³Briggs, Thomas H., *Secondary Education*, New York: Macmillan Company, 1933. 578 pp.

⁴*Teachers College Record*, May, 1934. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

⁵Bulletin No. 59, January 1936. Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 310 pp. \$1.10.

⁶Bulletin No. 64, January 1937. 226 pp. \$1.10. Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.

time be made. But it is reasonable to expect that the foundation work can be done by a sufficient staff in five years.

WHAT A COMMISSION SHOULD DO

What should the Commission attempt to do? After it has developed and popularized a basic philosophy of secondary education consonant with the philosophy of our democratic civilization, it should propose general curriculums and produce the raw materials that schools can use to make them effective. These raw materials will be drawn from the results of research and will also be produced by inventive experts.

If it were agreed that education should develop youth better able and more desirous to contribute to make a community a better place in which to live and a better place in which to make a living, the Commission could undertake to list the characteristics of a community good to live in and good in which to make a living, and it could propose means that promise to make youth more competent and more eager to contribute now and in the future, each according to his ability. It might go even further and outline courses of study that utilize the proposed means, some of which would be invented but most of which in all probability would be drawn from reports of actual successful experience.

If it were agreed that education should teach people to do better the desirable things that they are likely to do anyway, the Commission could, after research, list the things that people are found actually to be doing in the various fields of life—in recreation, in appreciation, in satisfying civic responsibilities, in making a home, in relations with friends and acquaintances, in carrying on the daily work of vocations, in preserving health, and so on. It might indicate expert judgment on the relative importance of each listed activity, but it could not assume responsibility for making a final decision; that must be done by the teachers themselves, with such advice as they can get from the local lay public. But certainly the Commission could properly propose means that are likely to be effective for enabling youth to do better what they will do anyway, without or with instruction.

If the Commission should accept the foregoing principle as a fundamental function of education, it would of necessity in order to insure progress approve a supplementary function: education should reveal higher activities and, what is equally important though often neglected, make them *desired* by the youth being taught. A listing of activities in the several fields of living higher than those ordinarily performed would enable teachers making courses of study to select those that they consider most important for the students and most likely to be accepted by them as desirable. A richer list of higher activities can of course be prepared by experts, who can use research as well as their own inventive judgments, than by any teacher or small group of teachers; but the latter would assume the responsibility both for

selecting from the proposed list what they consider the relatively most important and also for making them desired by students in their classes. Unless a youth considers an activity desirable for him, he is not likely to attempt to carry it on after he is freed from compulsion.

The Commission could clarify the meaning of objectives in education—such as teaching youth to become good citizens or, on a lower level, to be economically literate—by breaking up general terms into their essential parts and by showing what acceptance of each one would necessitate in the way of teaching and ultimately of applications to life. One reason why the best of theory has resulted in so little change in practice is that we have been content with blanket terms and have not lifted the edges to see what underlies each one. Nobody is likely to deny that culture is a highly desirable objective of education, but no program can achieve culture in its students until it has analyzed the term into its achievable elements. Unanalyzed, it is a benign soporific rather than a directive stimulus.

It is easy to propose illustrations of what the Commission might do, though of course its program would be determined by the staff itself after advice from the field. Suppose it were decided that literature should be taught not merely for its aesthetic values but also in cycles contributing to the development of ethical ideals. The Commission could select and propose groups of stories, poems, dramas, and essays that present ideals of patriotism, loyalty, friendship, heroism, trustworthiness, and the like. A teacher accepting the general objective would then have at hand materials that he could draw on without the necessity of laborious and often impossible library research. Or, for another example, the Commission could collect and publish lists of activities that have proved effective, or that promise to prove effective, in developing in youth the characteristics of the good citizen, of the good member of a family, or of the good neighbor. No school would be obligated to seek such objectives if they were judged to be less important than others for the education of the youth that are to be instructed; but if it did approve them, it would have at hand materials that it might use.

The illustrations just presented may give an impression that these are considered the most important activities of the proposed Commission. They are important and obviously economical if prepared by a central body for consideration and use by all the schools of the nation, but more important still would be the laying of the foundations for the new education: proposing a basic philosophy, clarifying concepts of such essential terms as *democracy*, *education*, and *culture*, deciding between the alternatives of important issues, proposing the functions that secondary schools should perform, finding means that can effectively be used for achieving these functions, setting forth

²See the analysis in *Pragmatism and Pedagogy* by Thomas H. Briggs, published in 1940 by Macmillan Company, New York.

principles for the development of satisfactory curriculums and courses of study, interpreting published research and directing other studies that are needed, and collecting and inventing raw materials, which it would present in a form that could be used by teachers directly or after modification.

LOCAL INDEPENDENCE AND RESPONSIBILITY

This is not a proposal for imposing on all schools a centrally determined program. Adaptations to satisfy peculiar local needs, which in our country, it may be noted, are relatively few in comparison with the common needs of all youth, will of course be necessary, for they are important for effective education. There has hitherto been no fear of the violation of our sound tradition of local independence when philosophic proposals were made by individuals or by committees, and no such fear when research students have published the frequencies of words, idioms, and grammatical construction in English and in other languages. Textbooks, which are courses of study, are almost universally used, with or without modification, and recommendations of reading lists and of projects are hospitably received everywhere. Teachers could after the Commission's publications still preserve the independence of their judgment. Whatever imposition on teachers exists, has come far more from local administrators than from national committees. It would not come from the proposed Curriculum Commission. Whatever it proposes, teachers will have a challenge to evaluate, select, supplement, and organize the net total for their own use.

FINANCING THE PROJECT

The proposed project for a Curriculum Commission will require money, a lot of it. But the needed amount is small when compared with the total spent every year on our secondary schools, a large percentage of which any honest audit would show is wasted. Expenditures to teach youth what they do not need, what they imperfectly learn, what they seldom use, and what they for the most part forget cannot be justified. There is a no more foolish definition than that which says that education is what is left when one has forgotten all that he has learned. It would be well worth the necessary millions to produce an educational program that will develop men and women who are actually and demonstrably healthier, happier, and more effective citizens in a democracy. Nothing less justifies any expenditure.

Nor does the needed amount of money seem large when compared with the total expenditures by the several commissions, committees, inquiries, and surveys during the past two decades. Altogether they have spent upwards of \$3,000,000. Although each one has contributed something to our knowledge, unco-ordinated in purpose and failing to begin with a fundamental and sound philosophy, they have significantly failed to solve the curriculum problem.

The required amount of money is small, too, when compared with what corporations spend in research for the improvement of their products. It

would be no exaggeration to estimate their expenditures in the past short generation as running into the billions of dollars, for in the year before we entered the war they spent \$300,000,000. If corporations can afford such amounts for the improvement of cars, refrigerators, sewing machines, and plastics, surely society can afford what is necessary to turn its raw human material into the best possible citizens.

From long financial starvation, educators have developed niggardly imaginations. They have accustomed themselves to ask for the minimum amount that will keep the schools running—and to accept less. They have financed their constructive committees just sufficiently to make possible week-end meetings that never have been and never can be adequate. Even their continuing commissions have had inadequate support. There is no justification in humility when the welfare of society is at stake. To get the funds needed to lay the foundations for the new curriculum and to develop the raw materials for the use of teachers, two things are necessary: *first*, without concealment, to reveal to the public the convincing evidence, much of which is already available in objective form, of the ineffectiveness and waste in the current program of secondary education; and, *second*, to propose a project that promises a practical, better program. The annual cost in terms of the individual young people in our country would be even less than that of the niggardly library service that has been provided.

POSSIBLE SOURCES OF FUNDS

Inasmuch as education is in our country a state function, the ideal source of funds for the proposed Curriculum Commission is the several states. But because of decentralization, it is unlikely—and probably it would be illegal—that any state would contribute adequately to a national organization independent of its control. Only the richest states could support commissions of their own, and if they did, the duplication of effort would be tremendously wasteful. An aroused public sentiment might, however, result in legislation that would make co-operation possible.

If the authorities of the several states should be convinced of the soundness of a comprehensive program for curriculum construction, they could make contributions to it by financing working groups under their separate control. Each of these working groups could undertake constructive research on one or more problems proposed by the central Curriculum Commission as essential to the larger project. Results of the research would be incorporated into a general report and thus be made available to all the schools of the country. In this way co-operation could be made by the several states with preservation of their independence.

A second possible source of funds is the Federal treasury. Because of the increased migration of our people and because it is now realized that the assets and the liabilities of any section affect the welfare of the entire nation, it

would be reasonable for the central government to assume responsibility for a project that promises improved and effective secondary education for all. Precedent for such support is the appropriation by the Congress in 1928 of \$225,000 for the National Survey of Secondary Education. It can be found also in the arguments for the *Educational Finance Act of 1945*, (S. 181 and H. R. 1296) now before the 79th Congress. If the U. S. Office of Education is strengthened, as proposed in the late President's last message to Congress, it could well undertake the proposed project and finance it out of its own budget.

To the proposal that the national government shall undertake to develop the new curriculum for secondary schools, there will of course be opposition by those who fear Federal domination. But the U. S. Office of Education could not dominate the school program if it could not compel the use of what its Commission produces. It has already offered numerous documents that propose material changes in the educational program; but no school is under obligation to be influenced by them. The traditional jealousy of state and local school systems to preserve their independence causes them to examine curriculum materials from Federal sources as they do commercially published textbooks; they adopt only what appeals to their judgment as good and practicable.

If the state or the Federal government will not sponsor and support a Curriculum Commission, it is natural to look to the National Education Association or its department of secondary-school administration, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Being the official professional organization of all educators, it should afford the desired leadership. But its funds are inadequate, and, moreover, they are almost entirely derived from membership fees from only one part of the population, whereas the project being for the good of the entire nation should be supported by all the people. Teachers doubtless would be willing to contribute generously from their meager salaries, but they should not be expected to carry the whole burden.

Funds for this purpose might be contributed to the National Education Association or to an independent Curriculum Commission by benevolent public-spirited organizations. Among them one looks first at the Foundations, but with reduced capital assets and income they are not likely to undertake the responsibility. Being timorous of seeming to attempt to influence the curriculum practices of schools, nearly all of the foundations have in recent years been inclined to make their appropriations through the American Council on Education, which is far less representative of public education than the National Education Association.

The Foundations, however, are not the only organizations that are so concerned with the welfare of the education of the nation that they are willing to make financial contributions for its improvement. Inasmuch as at this

time the major part of charitable contributions by large organizations can be charged off against taxes, it is reasonable to expect that many of them will be hospitable to an invitation to contribute thus to the public welfare. Of course any contribution must be freely given with no expectation that the donor will attempt to, or can, exert any influence on the developing program. (That this is possible has been proved by the experience of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, which has been financed by funds raised by the National Better Business Bureau from undisclosed sources.) If organizations representing agriculture, business, industry, and labor will co-operate in making funds available for use by a Curriculum Commission directed by the National Education Association or the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, there is assurance that the produced materials will reflect no bias. As a matter of fact, all but a small part of the curriculum concerns matters about which no special interest can have a selfish concern anyway.

The securing of funds for such a purpose may be difficult, but since the project is essential and in the long run—not so very long, at that—economical, ways can be found if the leaders of the profession are unwilling to protect themselves any longer by continuing easy but wasteful curriculum practices.

An even more difficult task will be to procure the desired and necessary personnel. The men and women who can lay an adequate foundation for the new curriculum and develop the materials for implementing it already hold positions of high responsibility. These they must be persuaded to relinquish for the number of years necessary for them to make their full contribution. They cannot do the job on part time with divided interest and effort or by occasional attendance on hurried committee meetings. If they recognize the project as of fundamental importance in a program to make education actually do what has been idealistically claimed for it, those who are worthy of the responsibility will make the necessary sacrifices.

Without such a project as the one proposed, what is the alternative? It must be granted that the curriculum is basic to everything that is to be done in the educational program. Organization is merely to facilitate administration, administration is merely to facilitate instruction, and teaching skills are effective only if what is taught is of value. Therefore, there can be no good school without a good curriculum. Education cannot justify itself unless it contributes maximally to making a community a better place in which to live and a better place in which to make a living. The conventional secondary-school curriculum is not doing that effectively. No general proposals for change will be effective unless they are implemented with practical details for classroom use. A Curriculum Commission adequately staffed, adequately financed, and given sufficient time can add to the nation's assets as no material improvements can ever be hoped to do.

News Notes

THE CHANGING PICTURE—Three years of war have radically changed the picture of child labor and youth employment in the United States. An appraisal of what has happened to the young people of the country at work and in school is seriously needed, as well as a look forward to see what steps are necessary to insure that the rising generation will be prepared for capable leadership in the postwar world.

In April, 1944, during the school term, the most reliable estimates, based on monthly sample surveys by the United States Bureau of the Census, showed nearly 3 million boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age at work—almost a third of the total population of these ages, and more than three times as many as when the decennial census was taken in March, 1940. Half of the 3 million were out of school and at work full time and half were working while also attending school. Nearly a million were 14 or 15; about 250,000 of these 14- and 15-year-olds and 1,100,000 of the 16- and 17-year-olds had left school and were working full time.

The increases between 1940 and 1944 are proportionately larger for the 14- and 15-year-old workers, for whom school attendance is generally felt to be a full-time job, than for the 16- and 17-year-olds. Almost one of every five of the population of the younger age group was at work, full time or part time, in April, 1944, compared with one of every eight in April, 1943.

In July, 1944, during school vacation and the seasonal farm-labor peak, there were roughly 5 million boys and girls 14 through 17 at work, approximating the peak of 1943. In addition, thousands of children under 14, for whom there is no official count, are employed both during the school year and in vacation.

Another yardstick of increased employment of young persons is found in the reports of employment certificates issued for children going to work, collected by the Children's Bureau. Certificate figures give a partial picture, representing for the most part only legal employment in non-agricultural industries. In contrast to the census figures, they do not show the total number at work at any one time but only the number entering employment in a given period.

There has been a great change during this period in the industries and occupations typically entered by young workers obtaining certificates. The 16- and 17-year-old workers have been tending away from employment in the trade and service industries, in which 55 percent went to work in 1940, to employment in manufacturing industries, which claimed 54 percent in 1943. Relatively few were engaged in delivery and messenger work or domestic service, the occupations of a third to a half of workers of these ages before the war.

Among the younger workers, those 14 and 15 years of age, there has been a marked shift from street trades and service industries to retail and wholesale trade. Nearly 60 percent of these young workers entered the trade industries in 1943, compared with only 28 percent in 1940.

At the same time that child labor has been increasing, the upward trend in high-school enrollment has been reversed. High-school enrollment, according to United States Office of Education figures had reached a total of 7,244,000 students in the school year 1940-41, an increase of nearly 5 million since 1920. These figures indicate, indeed, that in 1941 high-school attendance had become the privilege of the majority of teen-age boys and girls rather than the minority;

75 per cent of the country's young persons of high-school age were enrolled in high school in the year 1940-41, compared with 32 percent in the year 1919-20. In the school year 1943-44, however, there were nearly a million fewer enrolled than in 1940-41.

This reduction is mainly due not to entrance into the armed forces or to a decrease in population of school age—though these reasons account for some of the loss—but to the great increase in the number who have left school for work, many leaving their courses in midterm.

This evidence of mounting child labor and youth employment, much of it at the expense of education and much of it under conditions harmful to children and youth, forces a realization of the need for reducing employment of teen-age boys and girls and opening greater opportunities for their education. The immediate reduction in manpower needs that will come with the termination of the war and curtailment of war production will lessen this abnormal war demand for young workers and offer an unrivaled opportunity to give young people better preparation for their responsibilities in a changing world. Youth who may be crowded out of the labor market in the reconversion period should be directed toward suitable training; all children under 16 years of age should be kept in school; and greater child-labor protection and better educational opportunities should be provided for all boys and girls of school age throughout the country.

The number of minors 14 through 17 years of age obtaining certificates for full-time or part-time work increased steadily from 1940 to 1943, the total increase amounting to over 650 percent in areas reporting for all 4 years—roughly from 175,000 in 1940 to 1,320,000 in 1943. Many states and cities have reported far greater increases. Figures for the first 6 months of 1944 indicate that the high level of 1943 is being maintained.

YOUTH IS THE FUTURE—National Boys and Girls Week celebrated its 25th anniversary this year from April 28 to May 5 inclusive. The observance draws the attention of the public to the potentialities and problems of youth, emphasizing the importance of the home, church, and school in their proper development. At the same time it gives impetus to year-round programs of character-building and citizenship, and acquaints the public with the youth organizations of the community which are serving these purposes.

The objects of Boys and Girls Week are:

1. To focus public attention upon boys and girls, their potentialities, and their problems, to the end that increasing numbers of adults may be awakened to the joys and opportunities of youth service and inspired to participate.
2. To give impetus to year-round programs of character-building activities for the general welfare of boys and girls; and to acquaint the public with the agencies which are serving this purpose.
3. To emphasize the importance of a sound body, a trained mind, and spiritual growth in the complete development of the boy and girl; and to emphasize the important functions of the home, the church, and the school in such development.
4. To emphasize the need for instilling in boys and girls the love of country and respect for its laws and established institutions and of bringing to each the realization of his duties and responsibilities as a citizen.

The committee has a *Manual of Suggestions* which gives complete information concerning Boys and Girls Week celebrations, and extensive suggestions for daily programs. The *Manual of Suggestions* may be secured without charge by writing the National Boys and Girls Week Committee, Room 950, 35 E. Wacker Drive, Chicago 1, Illinois. Suggestions may be adapted as required to suit the needs of individual celebrations and communities. The Committee will appreciate receiving reports of Boys and Girls Week celebrations so that outstanding ideas may be passed along.

VICTORY FARM VOLUNTEERS—The farm labor situation in 1945 will be more critical than in 1944—more farm boys will be drafted into the armed forces—the number of discharged servicemen and industrial workers returning to agriculture will not be significant—we'll have to depend more than ever on volunteer workers—youth have proved themselves—more VFV's will be needed than ever before—but the available youth will be younger and harder to recruit.

Meredith C. Wilson of the U. S. Department of Agriculture Extension Service, summarized the over-all situation in a communication recently sent to state supervisors, when he said: "Developments on the war and manpower fronts during recent weeks point to a much more difficult farm labor task in 1945 than in either 1944 or 1943. The reduction in number of agricultural workers resulting from closer screening of the 18 through 25 year-olds deferred because of agricultural occupation can easily exceed the total number of foreign agricultural workers imported during 1944. This shock must, of necessity, be largely absorbed by the domestic side of the farm labor program. You are, undoubtedly, giving much thought as to how best to meet this new situation."

Several states report on work-leader training courses for adults supervising VFV's in the fields. In Maine, 30 adults, mostly teachers, were recruited to take a course conducted by a vocational agriculture teacher. Teaching aids such as *Your Job as a Work Leader* and the Children's Bureau publication *Work Leaders for Groups of Nonfarm Youth Employed in Agriculture* were supplied by the Extension Service. These work leaders recruited their own groups of VFV's and worked consistently well throughout the summer.

Michigan has a similar success story to tell regarding work-leader training. Although the full number of supervisors in each camp did not take the 5-day course given at the college, those who did, were able to instruct the other supervisors during the first 2 or 3 days at camp. Suggestions on the duties of the supervisors, hints on handling youth, and recreational programs were all included.

Considerable emphasis is placed on the need for better planning and preparation for day-haul programs. Some states have made much progress in improving their day-haul procedures. Others are planning on giving this part of the program more attention. The organization and supervision of day-hauls still need considerable tightening up in most states.

C. W. Pierson, Washington VFV supervisor, reported on a system which worked well in Seattle. Six main points were stressed: (1) Safe transportation checked by school officials; (2) careful selection of workers, those approved were identified by special VFV badges; (3) participation of the county farm labor committee in planning recruitment and placement; (4) elimination of unsatisfactory workers after one or two days' trial; (5) orderly systematic assignment of workers to farmers—the farmers agreed to accept only approved workers;

and (6) work records kept for each VFV, that can be used in selecting youngsters for this year's program.

Several states which had not tried placing youth individually in 1944, reported successful live-in programs. The South Carolina supervisor, reported the placement of 20 boys in Florence County. All of these were city boys from Charleston. All the farmers who used these boys want them back again, and many more who refused to take youth in 1944 are asking for them this year. Vermont lays much emphasis on personal contacts, in operating a successful live-in program. If the program has been successful, it is due to the stress placed on personal contact and appreciation.

Experience has taught much about handling work-camp programs. Many of the problems which plagued those operating camps have been solved. Indiana's program involved nine camps in seven counties that housed a total of 1,450 boys for corn detasseling and peach picking. Enrollments for each camp ranged from 20 to 450 workers from 14 to 18 years of age. A survey of need for workers, foremen, bus drivers, supervisors, buses, and camp equipment was made 30 days in advance of the harvest period. Twenty days prior to the opening of each camp, the employer signed an agreement or contract with the Extension Service. He also made a deposit for each worker requested, which was refunded if he employed all the workers for which he had asked.

County agents did the recruiting and selecting of youth supervisors and foremen from their own counties, recruiting one supervisor for each 25 boys accepted. Wages were good, the agreement was specific, and housing and food were adequate. About 85 per cent were farm boys.

California reports especially good and extensive use of various private and public agencies such as the "Y's," schools, etc., in the operation of work camps. Representatives of 12 of these agencies composed the State Advisory Subcommittee on Farm Labor Mobilization and participated in the organization of the VFV camp program.

Major points that must have sound planning to make a camp program successful are listed as (1) Farmers and their responsibilities. Farmers, in certifying their need for camp workers, must assume specific obligations in relation to the camp. (2) Personnel and supervision. Camp supervisors must be of high quality, able to work well with young people, adaptable and imaginative. (3) Health. Youth must not only be physically fit for farm work, but a doctor or nurse must be available at all times for medical care and check ups. (4) Recreation. Good morale depends largely on good recreational programs and facilities. (5) Recruitment. Recruiters must know what the work is like and the type of person needed. Previous members of the Victory Farm Volunteers make the best possible recruiters.

PAN-AMERICAN CLUBS PLAN ACTIVITIES—Suggestions for activities, organization aids, and other valuable material for advisers of Pan-American clubs are featured in *Inter-American Co-operation in the Schools: Students Clubs*, a new pamphlet published by the U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. Prepared to assist faculty advisers of Pan-American clubs to organize student groups, the pamphlet traces the growth of Pan-American clubs in the United States and other American republics and discusses the importance of these clubs in the development of Inter-American co-operation. The largest portion of the illustrated pamphlet is devoted to program suggestions and sources of program aids. Celebration of three occasions of inter-American significance—

Teachers' Day, September 11, Columbus Day, October 12, and Pan-American Day, April 14—are discussed. Bibliographies of program aids in the field of art, biography, the dance, films and recordings, foods, games and quizzes, geography, history, international relations, language, literature, music, and radio are given in detail. Copies of the publication, Pamphlet No. 97, may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., for 10 cents.

HIGH-SCHOOL SALARIES—The *College of Education News* for January reports the findings of a survey of high-school teacher salaries in Minnesota schools that employ from ten to fifteen teachers. This was made by Justin W. Swenson, superintendent of schools at Henderson. Median 1944-45 salaries which he found were by position: superintendents, \$3,026; high-school principals, \$1,943; coaches, \$2,218; agriculture, \$2,600; commercial, \$1,772, home economics, \$1,745; industrial arts, \$2,062; regular high school teachers (not including superintendents, principals, special teachers, and coaches), \$1,638. A recent study by the Bureau of Recommendations Staff of the salaries earned this year by the 1944 seniors of the College of Education shows that the most common salary for teachers of the regular academic subjects in high school is between \$175 and \$180 per month. In order to obtain teachers during the war emergency, many of the very small communities are offering considerably higher salaries to beginning teachers than are allowed by the salary schedule of the larger cities.—*Minnesota Journal of Education*.

INSTITUTE ON READING INSTRUCTION—The Reading Clinic Staff, School of Education, The Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania, is sponsoring a one-week Institute on reading problems in elementary and secondary classrooms, June 25 to 29, 1945. *Differentiated Reading Instruction* is the general theme. One day will be given to each of the following topics: reading readiness, discovering reading levels and needs, children's literature, developing basic reading skills and abilities through the use of current events materials, and approaches to differentiated reading instruction. These topics will be developed by means of lectures, demonstrations, and informal discussions. The program has been differentiated to meet the needs of elementary, secondary, special class, reading, and speech teachers and supervisors. In addition, special sessions will be conducted for supervisors, administrators, and school psychologists. The meetings for elementary school teachers will be under the direction of Dr. E. A. Betts and Miss Carolyn M. Welch; for secondary teachers, Miss Carol Hovious. Tentative programs and transportation schedules may be obtained by writing to Miss Betty J. Haugh, Reading Clinic Secretary, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Penna.

POSTWAR PROBLEMS—The first general handbook on methods of stimulating popular interest in postwar problems, both national and international, will be published by the Postwar Information Exchange, Inc., in the summer of 1945. The Exchange, with members from nearly seventy research and educational organizations, maintains headquarters at 8 West 40th Street in New York City and acts as a clearing house for information on postwar questions. The handbook is a co-operative experiment to improve methods of popular education through sharing of experiences and information. It will be illustrated and written in popular style. Single copies will be sold for 25 cents. The Postwar Information Exchange, Inc., also publishes the monthly Postwar Information Bulletin (subscription \$1.00 for 12 issues) which reports briefly on unusual educational meth-

ods and which pools the expert knowledge of its membership on the best current materials for students and adults groups.

AUSTRALIA—The Australian News and Information Bureau of 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, N. Y., recently published a 32-page bulletin entitled *A Look at Australia*. It is intended primarily for use in schools and libraries. No charge is made for the publication, and up to twenty-five copies per teacher can be supplied for group study. This profusely illustrated booklet presents in an exceedingly interesting manner important facts about the country and its people. It is a publication that will fascinate high-school students.

REHABILITATION—A ROAD TO PEACE—The magnitude of this global war has compelled us to pool our thinking and our resources on an international basis. As a result, the United Nations have banded themselves in a mighty international military effort to win the war.

The recent conference held at Yalta, and the conference being held at San Francisco prove conclusively that the United Nations have also banded themselves to achieve a lasting peace.

But the peace can never be achieved unless a bridge is thrown across the torrent of destruction and misery which separates the liberated peoples from the normal processes of decent living. It was to erect this bridge that 44 countries in November 1943 brought into existence the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration—familiarily known as UNRRA.

The peoples of the United Nations are proud and self-reliant. The last thing in the world they want is charity. Although the liberated countries sacrificed in life and treasure their full measure in the war against Fascism, they intend to take care of nine tenths of their reconstruction through their own resources.

Those countries still possessing sufficient foreign exchange insist on paying for the imports of food and raw materials which their lands cannot now produce, but which they must have for the restoration of their economic life. These are known as paying countries.

The need for UNRRA¹ is vital—that is why it was created. UNRRA can succeed in its mission only if it is given the tools and facilities with which to work—these tools and facilities can be made available to UNRRA only by the governments themselves. In a word, it is absolutely essential that UNRRA have: (1) Shipping; (2) Adequate Supplies; (3) Inland Transport, and finally, the full co-operation of the governments concerned in the furnishing or distributing of supplies. The highest ideals and the finest organization for bringing help to stricken peoples must fail unless they are implemented by supplies; ships and inland transports, so that people will receive and be able to distribute the help they so desperately need.

Failure to furnish the liberated nations with the necessary civilian supplies, whether these are furnished by the military, by UNRRA or by the governments themselves, may have serious political and military implications, since adequate civilian supplies are the fundamental of economic and social recovery.—*From an Address by Herbert H. Lehman, Director General.*

INSTITUTE ON THE POSITION OF THE UNITED STATES IN WORLD AFFAIRS—An opportunity for teachers to study international relations this summer in the National Capital has been announced by American University of

¹Moreland, Philip. *I'm Coming Back*. THE BULLETIN No. 128, Feb. 1943, pp. 3-8. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C. The story of UNRRA.

Washington, D. C. The University will conduct an Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs for a period of seven weeks, June 11-July 27, 1945. The following features will characterize the work of the Institute:

1. An early morning course, five periods a week for seven weeks, in which a number of lecturers, each a specialist in his own field, will present a picture of the international scene, giving a general view of the world problems of today, with special emphasis upon issues of American international policy.
2. A morning course of five periods a week, which will afford opportunities for a more detailed study of a few of the more pressing and important issues of international policy. This course will be conducted largely through group discussion.
3. A seminar of two or three periods a week on materials, research, and teaching methods in the field of international policy.
4. Arrangements will be made whereby members of the Institute may visit sessions of Congress and of Congressional committees and administrative departments, bureaus, and agencies. There will be conferences with government officials and opportunities to see the government in operation.
5. A series of public lectures held at night, the lecturers being men prominent in the government or well-known interpreters of international issues.

Those taking the work for credit may receive eight semester hours of graduate credit. Members of the Institute may obtain rooms in the University dormitory, and meals will also be served there. The cost of a room and meals for seven weeks will be \$110. Tuition for the period will be \$30.

PUBLICATION OF THREE NEW STATISTICAL STUDIES—The U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, has recently published three statistical studies, one dealing with state school systems, one with higher education, and the other a summary of educational statistics for the Nation. All three are chapters of Volume II of the Biennial Survey of Education for 1938-40 and 1940-42. *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, present data on public elementary and secondary schools, together with comparisons extending over the 70-year period of State school statistics. This publication shows that the average salary of the instructional staff in 1941-42 was \$1,507, but the average in the lowest state was only \$517. State governments continue to assume increasing financial responsibility for public education, supplying 30.7 per cent of the income for elementary and secondary schools in 1941-42, and the number of school administrative units and one-teacher schools continue to decrease.

Statistics of Higher Education 1939-40 and 1941-42 present data which foreshadow in some measure the profoundly significant changes which came after the close of the period under review. The third of the three publications, *Statistical Summary of Education, 1941-42*, shows that more than one in every four persons of the total population of the United States are attending full-time day schools staffed by over 1,000,000 teachers. The school cost of giving about 12 years of education (median 11.4) to the incoming generation of citizens age 21 is less than \$450 per present adult citizen of the United States. It presents in 42 pages (an over-all picture of education in the United States,) information concerning enrollments, attendance, finance, and other data related to public and private elementary and secondary schools, special schools, institutions of higher education, and libraries. It also gives information concerning trends in elementary and secondary education from 1869-70 to 1941-42. The three publications may

be obtained by purchase from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at 20 cents, 45 cents, and 10 cents per copy, respectively.

DRIVER EDUCATION—Will your community have to be aroused by tragedy or will it provide driver education and training for high-school youth as a fundamental means of saving lives? The postwar increase of motor vehicle use presents the danger that the annual death toll from traffic accidents will approach or possibly exceed the pre-war peak of 40,000. The record of traffic deaths and law violations involving youth challenges our 28,000 high schools. Studies show that in terms of miles driven, young drivers ages 16-20 drove less than one fifth as far per fatal accident as those ages 45-50.

Many high schools have already helped students develop knowledge, skills, and proper attitudes regarding the motor vehicle and its safe use. They are making competent citizens for our motor age. Measured in terms of lives saved, the effort expended in training drivers will repay society many times over.

Tied up inseparably with the safe and efficient use of motor vehicles are such major problems as the protection and use of our natural resources, the improvement of rural education and health, the development of agricultural economy, including the transportation of farm products, the desirable location of industries and homes, and the co-ordination of air, motor vehicle, and other forms of transportation.

The National Commission on Safety Education, 1201-16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. in urging school administrators to provide driver education and training for high-school students, recognizes that numerous practical questions will arise. Help can be obtained by writing the commission.

INFORMATION ABOUT CANADA—Owing to an increasing interest on the part of Americans in Canadian affairs, and owing in particular to the growing volume of requests for information on Canada that are coming into the Canadian offices from teachers and students in all parts of the United States, the Canadian Wartime Information Board, has established an office in Washington D. C. It acts in part as the official distribution center in the United States for informational materials about Canada and Canadian affairs. The Board has two offices: one at 1205-15th St., Washington 5, D. C.; and one at 620-5th Ave., New York 20, N. Y. Both offices are in a position to distribute in reasonable quantities such teaching aids as maps, posters, and pamphlets illustrating Canada, the country, its people, and their political, economics and cultural life. A wide selection of photographs is available on loan. The material listed below is a brief description of five of its regular publications, and two other booklets not published by the board. All of these publications fit well into social studies courses on Canada. No charge is made for any of these services.

Canada at War, a monthly reference booklet of basic information concerning Canada's war effort. Special pictorial editions appear at irregular intervals. *Canadian Affairs*, a fortnightly series of articles in pamphlet form, by prominent Canadians on topics of current interest such as:

The New North

Canada as a Pacific Power

Canada—World Trader

Canada and the Post-War World

People on the Land

Canada's Constitution

Quebec

British Columbia

Wealth in Wood

The Prairie Provinces

Power for Prosperity

Ontario

Will There Be Jobs?

The Maritimes

Skyways of the Future

Canada Plans Security

Canadian Affairs Pictorial, a series of posters, illustrating graphically certain articles appearing in *Canadian Affairs*, such as "The New North," "Canada—World Trader," "Wealth in Wood," "Ontario," "The Maritimes," etc.

Postwar Planning Information, a detailed fortnightly survey of the main legislation, recommendations, and proposals in Canada relating to the problems of postwar rehabilitation, reconstruction, and social security.

Reference Papers, an irregular series providing basic material on specific aspects of Canadian affairs as they relate to the war effort. Outstanding among these have been such issues as *Canadian Schools and Universities in Wartime*, and *Canadian Food and Agriculture in War*.

Maps, Posters

Canada—1945, a statistical reference handbook of primary information relating to Canada's economy.

Canada—An Introduction to a Nation, a brief survey of Canada's geography history, economy, and culture.

FILMSTRIPS FOR SCHOOLS—Thirty-three filmstrips which deal with contemporary life in the United States have recently been released by the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. Originally produced by the Council in co-operation with the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs for Latin American distribution, the filmstrips offered so much valuable material for our own schools that arrangements have been completed for distribution in this country. Seven of the titles (Panorama of the United States, 75 frames; Northeastern Region, 53 frames; Southeastern Region, 57 frames; Southwestern Region, 57 frames; Far Western Region, 58 frames; Northwestern Region, 44 frames; and Middle States Region, 45 frames) deal with the regional geography of the United States. The first provides a panorama. The six succeeding subjects take up the individual regions in more detail bringing out regional characteristics in terms of climate, topography, people, industries, and products as well as indicating the interdependence of the different regions.

Some subjects such as *Day on the Farm* (50 frames), *Suburban Family* (43 frames), and *Small Town* (56 frames) are documentary treatments which bring to the student the flavor of life in a situation different from his own. National parks and forests, important aspects of flood control, irrigation, harnessing water power, rural electrification, and soil conservation are treated in other filmstrips. A number of subjects present material closely related to health topics. *Urban Clinic* (50 frames) and *Rural Public Health* (49 frames) provide fine documentary material on the services offered in city and country areas. Housing is treated in two filmstrips which deal with private (*City Within a City*, 41 frames) and public housing (*Clearing the Slums*, 43 frames) projects. Teacher training institutions and PTA groups should find the three subjects on schools (*One-Teacher Schools*, 57 frames; *Centralized Schools*, 54 frames; and *Parochial Schools*, 54 frames) particularly interesting as springboards for discussion. Each filmstrip is accompanied by a script which may be read as a running commentary when the filmstrip is projected, or may be used as a teacher's guide. Ample background material is included. Other titles are:

Railroad Transportation, 37 frames.

Suburban Family, 43 frames.

Forests of the United States, 48 frames.

Coal Miners, 51 frames.

Rural Electrification, 44 frames.

Railroad Family, 41 frames.

Rural Public Health, 49 frames.

Forest Ranger, 50 frames.

Rural Youth Groups, 47 frames.

Harnessing Rivers, 39 frames.

<i>Civilian Conservation Corps</i> , 38 frames.	<i>Soil Conservation</i> , 51 frames.
<i>National Parks of the United States</i> , 46 frames.	<i>Irrigation</i> , 41 frames.
<i>Indians of the Southwest</i> , 47 frames.	<i>Registered Nurse</i> , 52 frames.
<i>Visit to Washington</i> , 64 frames.	<i>Nutrition</i> , 50 frames.

The filmstrips are for sale only. They are priced at \$1.50 each; any seven for \$10.00; the complete set of 33 for \$45.00. Prices include two copies of the English script for each filmstrip. A limited number of scripts are available in Spanish for language classes. Spanish scripts are priced at 10 cents each. For complete information write to the American Council on Education. A catalog is now available and preview prints will be supplied on request.

GARDEN EDUCATION — For many years school gardening has had a place in the curriculum of a comparatively few schools; but recently it has taken on added stature. In more and more school systems it is being recognized as a truly educative activity; for, while the production of food and flowers is a desirable and almost necessary objective for educational gardening, it is secondary to the development of character, body, and mind in the youngsters who participate.

With the increasing recognition of gardening as a science course, and the growing desire to include it as a regular part of the curriculum in many school systems, the one deterrent in many cases has been lack of any adequate, well organized text material.

Paul R. Young, dean of the Garden Education movement, and for many years Supervisor of School Gardening in Cleveland (the country's outstanding program), received continual requests for outlines and suggestions for conducting organized gardening courses. As the demands increased he found it impossible to do justice to them because of his already heavy schedule. Continuing requests prompted him to write. He has written two textbooks which carry the pupil from the first elementary steps to a broader knowledge of underlying factors. These companion books, *Elementary Garden-Graphs* and *Advanced Garden-Graphs*, have become the standard texts for School Gardening programs throughout the country. They provide integrated courses for all levels from the Fifth and Sixth grades through Junior and Senior High Schools. Because the teaching of gardening is a new activity to many science and other teachers, Mr. Young has prepared Teacher's Manuals for both textbooks. These not only make suggestions for teaching procedure, and detail the teaching aids useful in each lesson, but outline the essential steps in organizing and conducting a successful Garden Education program.

The Elementary text sells for 30 cents, the Advanced text for 36 cents, and the Teachers manual for 16 and 18 cents respectively, postpaid. Discount on quantity orders are available. Write Garden Reviews, 415 Lexington Avenue, New York 17.

PER PUPIL EXPENDITURE — The office of Research and statistics of the Department of Education, State Education Building, Boston, Massachusetts has recently completed a study of expenditures for public education in the state of Massachusetts. The statistics based on the expenditure per pupil (average membership) for the school year 1943-44 are as follows: General Control, \$5.14 (3.9% of the total expenditure); Salaries, \$92.79 (70.5%); Textbooks \$1.52 (1.2%); Other Expenses (supplies, etc.) \$3.37 (2.6%); Operation \$16.27 (12.3%); Repairs \$4.39 (3.3%); Libraries \$.11; Health \$2.20 (1.7%); Transportation \$3.50 (2.7%); Tuition \$1.16 (.9%); Miscellaneous \$1.25 (.9%); Total \$131.70.

GUIDANCE IN NORTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOLS—There has been an increase in the number of public high schools that are following some guidance practices, it is learned from a survey of the 1943-44 North Carolina high-school principals' reports. Returns from approximately 95 per cent of the 986 high schools in the State gave the following results:

1. 74.3 per cent of these schools use the cumulative record folder. Two years preceding 58.8 per cent of the schools used these forms.
2. 44.3 per cent used achievement tests; in 1941-42 only 27.8 per cent used such tests.
3. 49.2 per cent had files for occupational information. This percentage was 38.4 in 1941-42.
4. 31.0 per cent had files on further training opportunities in 1943-44 as compared with 25.4 per cent in 1941-42.
5. 12.2 per cent gave occupational courses, decreasing from 15.3 per cent two years previous.
6. 74.3 per cent of the schools provided individual counseling about educational and vocational plans as compared with 55.3 per cent in 1941-42.
7. 55.4 per cent made placement efforts; this percentage was 42.1 in 1941-42.
8. 41 per cent had a follow-up service covering all graduates and drop-outs, an increase from 38.4 per cent in 1941-42.—*North Carolina Public School Bulletin*.

GUIDANCE IN KANSAS HIGH SCHOOLS—In a recent survey of 400 Kansas high schools the following information relative to guidance practices was found:

There is an organized guidance program in 91 of these 400 high schools; 59 others are in the process of organizing programs. In the high schools having organized guidance programs, the survey reveals that in only 31 are there counselors with definite assignments. These counselors number 37. Assignments range from one period per day to a full-time program. In these 31 high schools, the counselor in charge of the program has no other administrative duties. In addition to the 37 counselors, 533 other teachers have assignments as assistants in guidance.

In the other 60 schools having guidance programs, the supervision of the program is in the hands of either the principal or the superintendent. In these schools, 202 teachers have guidance responsibilities.

Seventy-seven of the 91 high schools offer courses in "Occupations." In some instances these classes are taught by the counselor and in others by teachers.

In the 91 high schools there is provided a total of 86 periods per day for individual counseling, 69 periods per day for so-called group guidance, and 62 periods for the teaching of "Occupations" during the fall semester. Sixty-five of the schools have occupational files, and a few others state that they are in the process of making them.

In the schools having organized guidance programs, there are 14,375 boys and 16,023 girls enrolled, a total of 30,398 pupils. These schools employ 1,518 teachers.—*Education for Victory*.

HIGH SCHOOL GUIDE TO BE PUBLISHED—A curriculum guide for Michigan's secondary schools is now being developed by a committee appointed by Eugene B. Elliott, state superintendent of public instruction, and will probably be published sometime this year. This Committee on the Secondary Program was appointed in January, 1943, as a subcommittee of the state Curriculum Planning Committee. The Curriculum guide is not being planned as a state course of study, but rather as a handbook for curriculum development

by and for local high schools. This distinction is important in the light of Michigan's basic instructional policy, which places the responsibility for curriculum development upon the local communities, with the Department of Public Instruction serving as an agency for stimulation and co-ordination of such development. The present volume is being prepared in response to numerous requests from high-school principals and teachers for help in developing secondary programs which are in tune with the needs of youth and the social responsibility of the schools.—*The Bulletin of the Michigan Secondary School Association.*

REPORT ON MOST WIDELY USED FILMS—A detailed and analytical study of the usage of films during 1943-44 has recently been completed by a graduate student, Heloise Griffon, working with Professor L. C. Larson. The complete report of this study will include many phases and interpretations of the whole problem of circulation of films last year by the Bureau. The section of the report which should interest directors of visual education programs and those using visual aids is the analysis of the most extensively used films classified under each subject.

Several factors should be taken into consideration in the interpretation of the following listing. All films accessioned by the Bureau before July 1, 1944 were included. The total number of days' use per title is given. Recently added films, it is probable, will show up better in later studies when additional prints have been purchased. The initial addition to the library is usually only one print, and at any time the Bureau has been unable to meet three booking requests, an additional print is added. Subsequent duplicate prints are secured on the same basis.

It is interesting to note that it was necessary to purchase six prints of *Heart and Circulation* prior to July 1, 1944. Five prints were required of *Digestion of Foods*, *Our Government*, *Development of Transportation*, *Molecular Theory of Matter*, *The Perfect Tribute*, *Colonial Children*, *Adventures of Bunny Rabbit*, *The Passenger Train*, *Leaves*, *Tanks*, *Animals of the Zoo*, *Joan Avoids a Cold*, *Bomber*, and *Children of Holland*.

The selection of films on the basis of total days' use per title has been checked with subject-matter specialists and, with few exceptions, they would have listed as the best films available in the various subject-matter areas these same films that on the basis of total days' use rank high under the subject matter headings. This high correlation indicates that directors of visual education programs and classroom teachers year after year do order the better films and eliminate the least desirable. A listing of the films included in this report may be secured from the Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids, Indiana University, Extension Division, Bloomington, Indiana.

WISCONSIN STUDENTS FLY—More than 200 Wisconsin high-school students obtained actual flight experience during the first semester of the present school year, according to reports received by the Civil Aeronautics Administration from Walter B. Senty, State Supervisor of Secondary Schools. Since these reports cover 30 per cent of the state's high schools, they would indicate a total of some 660 students receiving flight experience throughout the state. A \$30,000 state appropriation to aid Wisconsin schools in introducing flight experience as laboratory work for science of aeronautics courses, and legislation enabling boards of education to contract with flight school operators for such instruction, are now pending. Senty has informed the CAA Aviation Education Service.

Similar measures have been introduced in Pennsylvania, where a committee on aviation education has prepared the first detailed "airport laboratory" plan. These plans were published in the December, 1944, issue of *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*.

In Tennessee, the State Bureau of Aeronautics is co-operating with several colleges and universities in an extensive program for the training of aeronautics teachers. New York State has a \$20,000 flight experience program in operation, in which Schenectady, Rochester, Waterloo, and other schools have already participated.

The Connecticut State Department of Education has issued a bulletin entitled *Educational Implications of the Air Age* which is considered notable for its specific suggestions of aviation materials which can be worked into other high-school studies, such as social science, English, fine arts, mathematics, biology, etc. The Nebraska State Department has also published a course of study for high schools, entitled *Essential Understandings for the Age of Flight*.

Another important report on aviation education has been issued by the California State Department of Education, which is considered notable for its specific suggestions of aviation materials which can be worked into other high-school studies, such as social science, English, fine arts, mathematics, biology, etc.

Another important report on aviation education has been issued by the California State Department of Education, which counted 194 high schools with 4,661 students enrolled in aeronautics courses during 1944. The California bulletin is significant for its proposals on a junior college aviation program.

Four state departments of education (Rhode Island, Ohio, Tennessee, and Alabama) have scheduled conferences to review progress in the field and plan next steps. In addition, an exploratory conference was held by the State Aeronautics Commission of Massachusetts, on February 16 in Boston. The Civil Aeronautics Administration was represented at these gatherings by Dr. Edgar Fuller, of its Aviation Education Service.

"There is a growing realization," Dr. Fuller says, "that aviation in the schools is not just a war emergency measure, but is here to stay. Forward-looking educators are aware that we are entering an air age in which every student will need to know the basic principles of aeronautics and their broad social implications. Such an understanding will be necessary whether or not the student ever becomes a civil or military flier, and should be inculcated as part of the general education program."

UNITED NATIONS RELIEF AND REHABILITATION—The UNRRA publishes a monthly pamphlet entitled *Monthly Review*. It appears about the middle of each month. Persons not at present receiving the *Monthly Review* may be placed on the mailing list by sending names and addresses to the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, Office of Public Information, 1344 Connecticut Avenue, Washington 25, D. C. A basic manual, describing the history, program, and current operations of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, is being sent to all those who are now on the *Monthly Review* mailing list. This 34-page booklet is entitled *UNRRA: Organization, Aims, Progress*. It may be secured in any desired quantities by writing to the Office of Public Information, above. The manual contains five graphic charts, which may be obtained separately in mat form by writing to Public Information. Another pamphlet, *A Program on United*

Nations Relief and Rehabilitation (30 pages) may also be secured from the same office.

The *First Report to Congress on the United States Participation in Operations of UNRRA*, transmitted to the Congress on December 5, 1944, by the late President Roosevelt, is available through the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., price 10 cents. UNRRA is prepared to help educational and organized groups in their work of developing public understanding of the problems of relief and rehabilitation among the United Nations.

BIBLE CURRICULUM GUIDE—The Department of Bible Teachers of the North Carolina Education Association has just issued in mimeographed form a "Curriculum Guide for Bible Study in Senior High School." The president of this department of the N. C. E. A. for this year is Frances C. Query, teacher in the Durham High School. This curriculum guide was the main project of the Bible teachers during the past school year in each of the six N. C. E. A. districts. The work in these districts was compiled and organized at a state-wide workshop held at Queens College on June 6-8, 1944. This publication is a direct result of that work.

The guide is divided into eight sections, as follows: Aims, Teacher Outlines, Suggested Bibliography for the Teachers, Suggested Books for High School Students, Public Activities, Suggested Memory Work, Visualizing Bible Teaching and Bible Club Activities.—*North Carolina Public School Bulletin*.

NEW PICTORIAL MAP—Teachers interested in natural resources and in pictorial representations will find the map entitled *Natural Resources of Michigan*, most attractive and helpful. Lithographed beautifully in color, the big yard-square wall map gives a wealth of information in a comprehensive, illustrative, symbolic manner, showing the replaceable and irreplaceable natural resources of the state of Michigan. The map, 38 x 40 inches in size is done in three colors on heavy paper. It is authentic, serves a dignified purpose, and has approximately 500 picture symbols, with each labelled carefully to show the fish, wildlife, land, mineral, forest, agricultural, and water resources of the State.

The product is new, entirely hand drawn, original, and is endorsed by the Michigan State Department of Conservation. Designed for visual education, with humor purposely omitted, it readily shows at a glance the nature, location, and extent of our natural resources—presented reliably after much research. It accomplishes its objective effectively and uniquely in a manner never heretofore equaled in authenticity. Copies may be secured at \$1.50 each from the artist and author, Roy Barron, 424 Hamilton Ave., Iron Mountain, Michigan.

WHITE HIGH SCHOOLS HAVE AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT—Approximately 500 of 748 North Carolina high schools for white students reported the ownership of various types of audio-visual equipment. Of the 748 schools reporting, 252 reported no equipment. The number of schools reporting motion picture machines almost tied with the number owning radios, there being 330 of the former and 333 of the latter. The number of schools owning film strip machines and sound systems were also about the same, 164 and 167. There were 168 schools that had regularly scheduled classroom films. The number of schools having lanterns was 126, whereas 54 schools had micro-projectors and

29 schools owned and operated opaque projectors.—*North Carolina Public School Bulletin*.

WORK EXPERIENCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.—Part-time employment of high-school students under school supervision, an important wartime development, will be studied for its relation to postwar education and employment by the National Child Labor Committee, according to an announcement today by Mrs. Gertrude Folks Zimand, General Secretary. "Paid employment of high-school students under a plan organized and supervised by the schools," said Mrs. Zimand, "has been the most constructive use of student manpower during the war. Where these plans have been in operation, school leaving has been considerably reduced and students have received far better training and experience than can be obtained in the miscellaneous after-school jobs which they otherwise find for themselves. Before these programs begin to taper off with decreasing war production, we believe they should be studied to determine whether or not work experience under school supervision has educational values which should be taken into consideration in future planning of secondary school curricula. Following California's successful experience with these programs in war industries, the California Teachers Association is now recommending that they become an established part of the school curriculum but there are many questions to be answered before we know whether work experience gives high school students something they need in their education or whether too many other important things have to be sacrificed if work experience is included.

"The Committee has secured the services of Harold J. Dillon of the Connecticut State Department of Education on a leave of absence basis for a year to make the study. "In seeking the answers to the pros and cons of work experience as a regular feature of the secondary-school curriculum, representative examples of these programs in various sections of the country will be studied. In addition to methods of organization and operation, information is needed from schools, employers, labor, and the students themselves as to the educational or vocational value of work experience, whether it tends to keep students in school by increasing their interest, whether their school work is favorably or adversely affected, whether employers are sufficiently interested to be willing to co-operate in providing opportunities for work experience after the war, and whether labor is favorable or opposed to part-time employment of students as an educational measure. If the consensus of opinion is favorable to the continuation and expansion of work experience in the secondary schools, other questions which will need consideration include the ages or grades at which such programs would be introduced in the schools, the extent to which the programs would be open to all students or restricted to those selected by the school on the basis of individual aptitudes, the kinds of industries and occupations that should be utilized, the degree of correlation between courses and work experience and the most effective methods of school supervision."

Leading representatives of industry, labor, education, adolescent health and psychology are on a special Advisory Committee for the Study. It includes Dr. Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

EXPERIENCES IN HIGH SCHOOLS—In junior and senior high schools the problem of intercultural education becomes more difficult, since adolescents are beginning to acquire the prejudices and the faults of maturity as well as its virtues. Here student organizations such as councils, clubs, and publications provide opportunity for co-operative effort. Results

are difficult to evaluate, but there are indications that slowly attitudes are being created which will lead young people to act with justice and understanding when they are on their own. For example, the editor of a school newspaper, learning that a girl on the staff had been deeply hurt by a thoughtless slur at her work and her people, wrote a burning editorial in which she urged her classmates to remember that this is America, to remember that others have feelings like her own, and to apply the golden rule. The elected presidents of classes in the senior high schools are a cosmopolitan group, representing almost as many different national origins as there are classes. A negro boy was, during the past year, the editor-in-chief of the Trade School paper, and has been chosen instructor in printing at the Springfield Boys' Club. These and many other such incidents are straws in the wind which encourage us to hope that real progress is being made.

Specific units having to do with education for citizenship are introduced into already existing courses in social studies, English, and science, beginning with the junior high school. Some of these units are in use in a large number of schools; others are still in process of preparation, being tried out experimentally and revised on the basis of experience. A brief summary of a number of these units used in the Springfield, Mass., schools is presented in the following account:

In the seventh grade, as a part of their course in history, pupils study the contributions of older civilizations to modern American democracy to bring out the fact that the American Dream is not an isolated phenomenon but a part of the long struggle of men of all races and countries to be free. The social studies work for the eighth grade is based on a consideration of the effects of government upon people, and a phase of that study is a unit on the contributions of religions to modern American democracy. The ninth-grade work deals with different ethnic groups which have contributed to the building of America. As a part of that study, the pupils make an investigation of the contributions of different nationalities in their own city.

In the tenth grade, classes in history or biology study the races of mankind. They learn the fundamental equality of the races, and the fallacy of the age-old theory of a "master race." Eleventh-grade social studies groups consider American democracy as a piece of unfinished business, with emphasis on the tasks still lying before this and succeeding generations. For eleventh-grade English a unit is in preparation on how to read the daily newspaper with understanding. Units for the twelfth grade include one on public opinion, prejudice, and propaganda, and the High School Town Meeting, a discussion program designed to give boys and girls an opportunity to learn the methods of democratic procedure, to practice the processes of democratic group thinking, and to apply the principles of democracy to actual situations. Most of the discussions of town meeting groups lead to some sort of appropriate action. One group, after spending several sessions in a consideration of the merits and defects of the rationing program, adopted a formal resolution pledging themselves as young Americans to abide conscientiously by the rules of rationing and to fight the black market wherever they found it, even in their own homes.

The program reaches out from the schools into the community. In the evening adult-school discussion groups other procedures are used to help in bringing about intercultural understanding. The Placement Bureau of the school system is making real progress in overcoming prejudice among employers against persons of certain races, nationalities, or religions. The Adult Educational Council, a link between the schools and the public, sponsors many community undertakings that involve co-operation and lead to mutual understanding, such as lecture courses, public forums, and non-partisan political rallies addressed by local candidates and by national authorities discussing the vital issues.

This in substance is the Springfield, Mass., program of education for democratic citizenship. It is at best only a beginning, the first steps toward the solution of the problem, not of "tolerance" alone, but of making fair-minded, intelligent citizens for tomorrow.

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS—*Planning the Instructional Program for the Future* is the title of a mimeographed report of the Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington conferences sponsored by the Northwest Society for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The tentative recommendations contained in this report are the result of the deliberation of two-day work-type conferences, presented to stimulate further discussion among educational groups in the Northwest. Copies may be secured for thirty-five cents by writing to Vernon E. Anderson, Executive Secretary, Northwest Society for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 631 Northeast Clackamas Street, Portland 8, Oregon.

NEW SERIES OF 16-MM PICTURES—Problems of personnel directors, office supervisors, and shop foremen are shown in a new series of 16 motion pictures, according to an announcement made by the U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C., under which the pictures are produced and released. This film series, called *Problems in Supervision*, was produced by the U. S. Office of Education to help train thousands of new foremen and supervisors in war industries. Such problems as supervising women workers, introducing new workers to their jobs, and lateness, loafing, and absenteeism are dealt with. While the films are directed primarily to shop foremen, the problems and principles are applicable to almost all supervisors. They will be valuable in the training of personnel directors and office supervisors—as well as shop and factory foremen.

Each motion picture in the series takes up a problem of supervision, raises questions commonly faced by supervisors, and suggests practical ways of meeting the problem. The films do not give "final answers," but instead provoke thought and discussion. The supervision training motion pictures, like 150 other Office of Education training films, were planned by technical and training experts. Subjects were chosen in terms of today's training needs and were approved by the War Manpower Commission. The motion pictures were produced by three commercial film producers—Caravel Films and Herbert Kerkow, New York City, and Mode Art Pictures, Pittsburgh—under contract to the government. The pictures may be purchased from Castle Films, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, the contractual distributor of all Offices of Education visual aids. They may also be rented from many 16-mm. educational film libraries. Copies of instructors' manuals are furnished without charge by the U. S. Office of Education to users of the films. Following are the catalog numbers, titles, running time, and prices of the films. Schools receive a 10 per cent discount.

150.	A New Supervisor Takes a Look at His Job	13 min.	\$19.21
151.	Planning and Laying Out Work	10 min.	\$16.73
152.	Maintaining Good Working Conditions	9 min.	15.48
153.	Working With Other Supervisors	8 min.	14.24
154.	Introducing the New Worker to His Job	16 min.	23.35
155.	Instructing the Worker on the Job	14 min.	21.49
156.	Placing the Right Man on the Job	13 min.	19.21
157.	Supervising Workers on the Job	10 min.	16.73
158.	Supervising Women Workers	11 min.	17.35
159.	Maintaining Workers' Interest	13 min.	19.21
161.	Every Minute Counts (Lateness, Loafing, and Absenteeism)	10 min.	16.73
163.	Improving the Job	9 min.	16.11
164.	Maintaining Quality Standards	10 min.	16.73
167.	Using Visual Aids in Training	14 min.	21.49
168.	The Supervisor as a Leader, Part I	14 min.	21.49
169.	The Supervisor as a Leader, Part II	13 min.	19.21

In addition, fourteen additional new motion pictures to aid in the training of war production workers in vocational schools and war industries have been released by the U. S.

Office of Education. Following are the catalog numbers, titles, running times, and prices by these 14 motion pictures. Schools receive a 10 per cent discount.

49.	Precision Gage Blocks	18 min.	\$25.22
50.	The Bevel Protractor	15 min.	22.73
122.	Pipe Fabrication with Jigs	22 min.	28.33
175.	The Electron—An Introduction	16 min.	23.35
189.	The Guided Bend Test	17 min.	24.60
190.	Oxy-acetylene Welding Light Metal	21 min.	27.71
239.	Sawing an Internal Irregular Shape	32 min.	38.13
240.	Filing an Internal Irregular Shape	27 min.	33.78
257.	Installing Landing Gear	19 min.	26.47
258.	Attaching and Aligning Wings	20 min.	27.00
354.	The Slide Rule (Percentage, Proportion, Squares and Square Roots)	21 min.	27.71
376.	Porcelain Protected Surface Wiring	19 min.	25.85
377.	Cable Surface Wiring	17 min.	24.60
404.	Feeding the Patient	15 min.	22.11

TRAINING THE ILLITERATE—Dr. Paul A. Witty, recently returned to the faculty of Northwestern University after serving nearly two years as chief of the Army's program for training illiterate and non-English speaking inductees, states that 90 per cent of those entering the program learn to read and write and qualify for basic training. Comparing the speed of learning with that in elementary schools, Witty stated that the average trainee acquires a standard fourth-grade reading ability and "the essential skills" in speaking, writing, and arithmetic within eight weeks. "Some men finish in three weeks," he said. "A few—mostly non-English speaking men—are retained 12 or even 16 weeks in exceptional cases."

Witty attributed much of the training speed to smaller classes, increased correlation in teaching related subjects, and the use of such novel visual aids as comic strips, film strips, and graphic portfolios. The comics, he said, had unusual interest appeal and consequently greatly improved concentration in learning to read.

Witty stated that although the problems of civilian education and Army training are not always the same, the Army had demonstrated educational principles valuable to American schools. "Many of the men in the Army are living in a better environment than they ever have known from the standpoint of health and hygiene," he said. "Moreover, in the Army these men live a more secure, well-ordered kind of life. These factors are conducive to rapid learning."

According to recent figures, 16 million, or one out of seven, Americans are functionally illiterate and therefore "unable to read a newspaper intelligently or write a correct letter." He stated that civilian education "must carry on the work of the Army in training illiterates. "Although we cannot always differentiate cause from effect, we are convinced that there is a somewhat close relationship between education and social progress, and that conviction makes us wary of tolerating widespread ignorance in our midst," he said. "As long as poverty, disease, and social delinquency go hand in hand with illiteracy, an effort to reduce or eliminate illiteracy becomes a deep responsibility." "Education is no panacea for all ills. But like the sulphur drugs, it is powerful to stay infection until the body can establish its own equilibrium and thus effect its cure."

CHILD LABOR—The large army of young people who have dropped out of school for work during the war years will present an educational problem of considerable magnitude after the war, according to the *Annual Report of the National Child Labor Committee*. "By the end of 1945," the Report states, "there will be approximately 3,000,000 young people ranging from 14 to 22 years, who left school for employment during the war years

before reaching the age of 18 and before completing high school. Many will have had more than two years of high school. Although no extensive studies have been made, data available from a few cities suggest that on the whole these young people are of a low level of education, a low level of ability and not especially interested in continuing their schooling.

"A recent New York City canvass, by the Board of Education, of 13,000 students who dropped out of high school at 16 or 17 showed that forty-eight per cent had been poor students, 37 per cent had been fair, and only 15 per cent had been rated as good or excellent. Pennsylvania studies by the Department of Public Instruction reveal that between 1941 and 1943, the greatest number of boys seeking employment each year had completed the ninth grade, and the greatest number of girls the tenth grade. An even more striking fact shown by the Pennsylvania figures is that the greatest increase in the groups leaving school for employment between 1941 and 1943 was among those who had not completed the sixth grade, a 1900 per cent increase for the girls and a 600 per cent increase for the boys.

"The situation for civilian youth is complicated by the fact that most of them, when they lose their jobs, will be eligible for unemployment insurance. In most states unemployment benefits are not paid to a person regularly attending school, on the basis that he is no longer available for work. Federal funds, administered through state unemployment compensation agencies, should be made available for educational grants to young people, otherwise eligible for unemployment insurance, who enroll in educational institutions. The amounts and duration of the grants should be equivalent to what they would receive under unemployment insurance if they did not enroll in school.

"In order to prevent a fresh crop of children from entering industry after the war, the age limit in state child labor laws should be raised to 16 years for all gainful employment during school hours. Only 13 states now have this standard; most state laws permit

children to leave school at 14 if they secure employment. The legislatures in these states will probably not consider immediate adoption of the 16-year standard, on the theory that available manpower should not be further reduced while the war continues. However, current concern about child employment and current fear of postwar unemployment should provide support of the enactment of this standard in 1945, to become effective six months after the termination of the war, as part of state postwar programs to stabilize employment.

"The war years have revealed increasingly that a large segment of public opinion tolerates restrictions on the employment of minors in depression periods when labor is plentiful, but does not really accept the basic premise underlying such legislation—namely, that it is essential to the welfare of children and the well-being of the state. Much remains to be done to assure to every child full opportunities for education and preparation for vocational life and adequate time for recreation and wholesome social development."

NEW TRAINING PROGRAM OPENS FOR ENLISTMENT IN NAVAL RESERVES—

Since opportunity to enter college or university educational programs supervised by the armed services has been closed, as of January 1, 1945, superintendents, high-school principals, and student counselors may be interested in the announcement of three new programs for *Seventeen Year Old Volunteers* who enlist in the Navy. These programs are: (1) *Radar*. A ten months intensive training in radar, radio, and electronics is offered to volunteers who can pass the pre-induction physical examination and an aptitude test for radio-electronics; (2) *Combat Aircrews*. Volunteers must have normal vision without glasses, must meet other special physical requirements, and must pass written examinations covering general intelligence and certain mechanical aptitudes; and (3) *Navy Hospital Corps*. The training for this corps should be valuable to students who plan postwar careers in medicine, chemistry, or public health. Further information as to the scope of the tests and the time and place for taking them should be obtained from any of the U. S. Navy Recruiting Stations.—*News of The Week*.

RECRUITMENT AND EDUCATION OF TEACHERS—The committee on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. plans to devote its major attention to assisting school systems, institutions, and organized agencies with problems involving the recruitment and education of teachers, bringing to bear upon those problems the experience of the Commission on Teacher Education and its professional staff. Several volumes reporting and analyzing the Commission's experiences are already available, and additional publications are scheduled to appear this year. Those already published are: *Teachers for Our Times*; *Evaluation in Teacher Education*; *Teacher Education in Service*; and *The College and Teacher Education*.

JUNIOR COLLEGE SALARIES—The median salary of instructors in publicly controlled junior colleges in the United States is \$2,395. In privately controlled junior colleges it is \$1,587. These figures are taken from a monograph, *Junior College Salaries in 1941-42*, just published by the American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D. C. This monograph is based upon an analysis of reports on salaries of more than five thousand full-time faculty members in 227 junior colleges in all parts of the country.

Salaries of the middle 50 per cent of instructors in 131 publicly controlled institutions range between \$1,893 and \$3,005. For instructors in 96 privately controlled institutions the similar range is from \$1,224 to \$2,009. The maximum salary reported for an instructor in the publicly controlled junior college was \$4,500; in those under private control, \$7,750 was the maximum. Maximum salary reported for the president among the publicly controlled junior colleges was \$9,000; median \$4,345; minimum, \$2,600. For the president among the privately controlled institutions the maximum was \$11,200; median, \$3,500; minimum, \$880.

NEW SLIDEFILMS—The Jam Handy Organization, 2900 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit, Michigan, announces the immediate availability of the following slidefilm subjects: *Properties of Metals* (in two parts, 100 teaching pictures), *The Four Stroke Cycle Internal Combustion Engine* (two parts, 127 teaching pictures), *Five Keys to Mathematics* (one part, 46 teaching pictures), *School Shop Teaching Techniques* (with or without disc record, 35 teaching pictures), and *Drill Presses* (two parts, 81 teaching pictures).

THE NEED FOR PHYSICAL THERAPISTS—A critical shortage of qualified physical therapists which endangers the proper care of infantile paralysis victims has caused The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis to appropriate \$1,267,600 for the training of these vitally needed specialists. Present-day medical treatment of patients with infantile paralysis demands more and more physical therapy. "A physical therapist is a technician who uses physical agents such as heat, electricity, light, exercise, rest, muscle training, and similar methods in contrast to the use of drugs and biological and surgical techniques. Today there are only 2,500 qualified physical therapists, of whom more than half are in the armed forces. With earlier and more extensive use of such methods of treatment, so imperative in the treatment of infantile paralysis, twice the number already trained could be used for this disease alone. It is estimated that an additional 5,000 could be used right now, not only for the treatment of infantile paralysis, but also for aiding recovery from many other diseases and disabilities. Preparation for entrance into approved schools of physical therapy requires graduation as a nurse, or physical educator, or two years' college training including biology and other basic sciences. Applications for scholarships should be made to The

National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York 5, New York.

THE LAND DOWN UNDER—An 125-picture film-strip on Australia, the youngest modern nation has recently been released by the Australian News and Information Bureau, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, New York for \$1.00, pre-paid. The strip pictures the land and its liberty-loving people, tells something of how they grew into nationhood and prospered; tells of their problems of the past and the future, their hopes and aspirations. A comprehensive lecture script and four pages of research material accompany the film-strip, providing material on which to base a self-contained lecture or study project on Australia. Subjects covered include geographic features, system of government and education, primary and manufacturing industries, *flora and fauna*, and the way of life of the people. Other free educational material for use in conjunction with the film-strip, or separately, it available from the Bureau.

SOLVING THE ACCIDENT PROBLEM—The number of children 5 to 14 years of age who were accidentally killed in one year would have filled more than 221 classrooms of ordinary size. The classroom teachers of the nation have a significant part to play in solving this accident problem. Realizing this fact, the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the National Safety Council combined forces in a project, the purpose of which is "To extend the scope and raise the standard of safety education in the schools of the United States by improving the quality of teacher education." The first step of this project is a study of current practice in regard to safety education in the teachers colleges of the Association. A report of this study will appear in the 24th Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

GUIDANCE WORKERS' AID—No guidance worker can do a good job without adequate tools and techniques. An excellent aid in keeping the guidance worker informed of recently available aids is that of *Vocational Guides*, an annotated bibliography of selected guidance materials published monthly during the school year by Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, at a subscription rate of \$4.00 a year.

READING TEST FOR GRADES 7 TO 9—The Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, has recently released the *Thorndike-Lorge Reading Test for Grades 7 to 9* for use in the schools. It is available in two forms. No special training is required to administer or to score them. The time allowed, forty minutes, gives each pupil ample time to demonstrate his reading ability. Reading varies widely. Its goal may be information, action, inspiration, or entertainment. Its operations range from mere perception of words and skimming of a page to appreciation of subtle aesthetic effects and search for answers to difficult questions. The *Thorndike Lorge Reading Test* is a general test planned to include all the important factors in silent reading and to give reasonable weight to each of these many factors.

NEW FILM CATALOG—Nearly 700 motion pictures and filmstrips produced by the U. S. Government for training and educational purposes are now available for purchase by schools, industry, and other civilian groups. All of these visual aids to education are described in a new catalog which gives synopses, running time, subject groupings, and prices of the various films and filmstrips. Subjects covered are aviation, agriculture, engineering, machine shop, nursing, shipbuilding, supervision, and many others. They range from "nuts and bolts" films, such as *Cutting a Dovetail Taper Slide* to problems in human relations such as *Employ-*

ing Blind Workers in Industry, and cover such different subjects as *Celestial Navigation*, and *Saving the Garden Crop*. Copies of the new catalog, just off the press, may be obtained on request from the Division of Visual Aids, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C., or from Castle Films, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

INTER-AMERICAN LIFE WORKSHOP—An Inter-American Life Workshop will be held at Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, from June 11 to July 18, 1945. Its purpose is to prepare teachers and others to assume leadership in developing better understanding among the peoples of the Americas. The program will include general meetings, interest groups, informal activities, and individual conferences. Opportunities will be provided for association with Latin American students in the colleges of the University Center. Other features of the Workshop include arts and crafts, music, exhibits, sound films, social activities, and outdoor fiesta.

The workshop staff will include three full-time consultants and will be supplemented by several visiting consultants assigned by the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs and by the United States Office of Education. A panel of professors from Peabody College, Scarritt College, and Vanderbilt University will be available for consultation and for lectures. The participants are expected to give full time to the workshop. A maximum of eight credit hours may be earned by workshop participants. The tuition and registration fees for eight credit hours are \$39.50. Inquiries may be addressed to Henry Harap, Peabody College, Nashville 4, Tennessee.

THE MICHIGAN CONCEPT OF CURRICULUM—The state of Michigan publishes no course of study, either for elementary or secondary schools. This lack is neither an accident nor an abdication of leadership. It has for many years been the basic policy of the Department of Public Instruction to place the responsibility for curriculum development upon local communities, local schools, and local faculties. It is believed that curriculum development cannot in any case be imposed by any state agency. The real curriculum of the school is the total scope of learning experiences which go on in that school and community. Such experiences should be selected in the light of the particular needs of the school community, with recognition of the impact which the whole world scene has upon every local unit. Obviously, such a locally appropriate curriculum must be locally developed. The very act of development is an important function of in-service education for teachers.—*News of the Week*.

PEACETIME MILITARY TRAINING—Junior college leaders, by more than a four-to-one vote, favor delaying decision on the question of the adoption of a policy of universal peacetime military service until after the establishment of peace, according to a nation-wide survey just completed by the American Association of Junior Colleges. Replies were received from more than 750 junior college administrators and faculty members in over 200 junior colleges in all parts of the country.

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION WORKSHOP—A summer workshop on Intercultural Education will be held at Stanford University for the six-week period from June 21 to August 2, in co-operation with the Bureau for Intercultural Education. Dr. Stewart G. Cole, director of the West Coast office of the bureau, and Professor I. James Quillen of the Stanford School of Education are co-directors. The function of the workshop is to provide opportunities for teachers, supervisors, school administrators, faculty members of teacher training institutions, and community leaders to work together on practical problems of inter-

cultural and interracial education. An extensive laboratory of materials in inter-group relations will be available. Leaders in the field of intercultural education with experience in public school and in adult and higher education will participate in the program. Attendance at the workshop is limited. Credit of from 8 to 12 units will be given. For further information, write to Dr. I. James Quillen, Stanford University, Stanford University, California.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK FOR 1945—The General Theme for American Education Week, November 11 to 17, 1945, is *Education to Promote the General Welfare*. The daily topics are as follows: Sunday, November 11, "Emphasizing Spiritual Values;" Monday, November 12, "Finishing the War;" Tuesday, November 13, "Securing the Peace;" Wednesday, November 14, "Improving Economic Wellbeing;" Thursday, November 15, "Strengthening Home Life;" Friday, November 16, "Developing Good Citizens;" and Saturday, November 17, "Building Sound Health." American Education Week is sponsored by the National Education Association, the American Legion, the United States Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, in co-operation with other national, state, and local groups.

AIR-AGE WORKSHOP—The Fort Hays Kansas State College at Hays, Kansas, announces an air age geography workshop to be held from June 18 to June 29, 1945. Two or three semester hours of credit may be earned. A fee of ten dollars is charged for the two weeks' work. Additional information may be secured from Maude McMIndes, Secretary of the Geography Workshop at the college.

SCHOLARSHIPS ON INTER-AMERICAN EDUCATION—Twenty scholarships, valued at \$500 each, will be awarded to qualified persons wishing to attend the Inter-American Education Workshop at the University of Denver this summer. The workshop is sponsored jointly for the third summer by the University and the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. It will be in session for five weeks, from June 18th to July 20th. The purpose of the workshop is to help teachers, school administrators, librarians, and others develop instructional techniques and materials for inter-American education. This study begins with our own Spanish-speaking population in the Rocky Mountain region and extends to the twenty Latin-American republics of the hemisphere. Scholarship applications and request for information about the workshop should be sent to Dr. Wilhelmina Hill at the University of Denver, Denver, Colorado.

QUICK WORK—An example of how quickly publishers can act is shown in the recently released pocket-size book (249 pages, 25 cents) entitled, *Franklin Delano Roosevelt, In Memoriam*, and published by Pocket Books, 1230 Sixth Ave., New York City. This book is a compilation of sayings about Roosevelt as well as excerpts from his own speeches. The divisions of the book include selections from radio broadcasts and editorials, a biography of the President, as well as President Truman's proclamation of mourning, excerpts from President Roosevelt's speeches and writings, an appraisal of all twelve years as president, a selection of poems, and lastly, the President's undelivered Jefferson Day address which was intended to be broadcast on April 13th, the day following his death. All royalties from the book have been donated to a charitable cause that was close to the heart of the late president.

The Book Column

BOOKS FOR TEACHER AND PUPIL USE:

KIRK, J. G. MUMFORD, G. E., and QUAY, M. H. *General Clerical Procedures*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1945. 313 pp. \$1.88. This book provides instructional material for the study of an important new occupational aspect of business. Young people will improve their chances of finding employment if they know how business is organized and by what procedures it functions. The aims of this course are vocational. The book makes clear how a modern business concern is divided into departments; how each department performs a special service; how the departments are directed and manned; how the work of each is related, and how necessary record-keeping is performed on specially designed forms. Through the recording of business transactions on approved forms, applied handwriting and applied arithmetic are emphasized. Because applied handwriting and arithmetic have strong appeal to the pupil's imagination, the course has a strong inherent motivation.

LASHER, W. K., and RICHARDS, E. A. *How You Can Get a Better Job*. Chicago: American Technical Society. 1945. 206 pp. \$1.50. Second Edition. It is divided into four parts: the human element, self-management, selling yourself, and getting ahead. It deals with those two important problems—how to apply for a job and how to become an efficient worker. It is written in a more or less chatty style so that it will be easy and interesting reading. The advice is practical, not "preachy."

LIPPINCOTT, J. W. *Wilderness Champion*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. 1944. 195 pp. \$2.00. When Johnny lost the best hound pup of the litter on the trail leading to his ranger's cabin high in the Alberta peaks, he almost gave up hope of finding it; but in a year there began to be rumors of a huge red hound who traveled in the sinister company of the black leader of the wolves. Then a wilderness adventure brought the hound back to his master, and his dog heritage held. This is a great story of a man's life and a dog's, bound together by strange ties of love and loyalty. It is a story charged with emotion, yet the author is completely faithful to true dog character and achievement, which he knows well.

O'BRIEN, KATE, Ed. *The Romance of English Literature*. New York: Hastings House. 1944. 324 pp. \$5.00. Here in one volume is a collection of books, ranging over the whole field of English achievement in literature, by distinguished authors and scholars covering the works of Chaucer, Shakespeare, Francis Bacon, John Bunyan, Henry Fielding, Jane Austen, Alfred Lord Tennyson, Thomas Hardy, Rudyard Kipling, Virginia Woolf, and many other illustrious writers.

This survey is no mere conventional, historical catalogue of famous names, but an original and penetrating study of the development of English literature and vivid dramatic evaluation of England's outstanding literary personalities.

The Romance of English Literature contains forty-eight color plates, many of them fine reproductions of the works of great masters, and 140 black and white illustrations of great beauty.

OFFNER, M. M. *The Fundamentals of Chemistry*. Philadelphia: The New Home Library. 1944. 408 pp. Here is a comprehensive and easy-to-understand presentation of the fascinating subject of Chemistry. The book progresses step by step so that even the reader who is wholly unfamiliar with the subject can acquire a firm grasp of the basic concepts of chemical science and its far-reaching influence on our everyday life. The book is organized according to the following plan: Part One consists of three

sections. Section 1 introduces the reader to such important subjects as elements, mixtures, atoms, electrons, formulas, solutions, acids, alkalies, salts, etc. Section 2 describes all the elements which are non-metals. Section 3 deals with the metals.

Part Two is of especially broad interest since it deals with Chemistry in Modern Life. To help the reader, there are over 100 illustrations prepared under the author's direction, and an index for convenient reference.

NAZAROFF, ALEXANDER. *The Land of the Russian People*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. 1944. 160 pp. \$2.00. The author views his native land with detachment and his knowledge and understanding of the country and its people give him the point of view desired in a book that introduces our young people to a great and important ally. Here, in simple and readable prose, are the facts about Russia's vast and varied terrain and an outline of Russian history from earliest times to today, carefully selected to make a comprehensive and easily remembered story. The second half of the book is devoted to an interpretation of the Russian people and Russian character, with description of Russian life as it is lived in country and town. Forty carefully selected and finely reproduced photographs supplementing the text are an important feature of the book. This book introduces American pupils to the Russian people as they are.

PARKER, J. E., PATTERSON, C. P., and McALISTER, S. B. *Citizenship in Our Democracy*. Boston: D. C. Heath. 1944. 363 pp. \$1.36. Revised. This is a civics for seventh and eighth-grade classes which shows pupils what their community does for them. It gives a clear picture of the individual citizen's part in making democracy work. It has been planned and written to help the pupil attain authentic knowledge and informed opinion about important aspects of present-day group life. Throughout the book the citizenship of the individual as well as a member of civic groups and of society, is interpreted in its broadest meaning. The dominant idea throughout is the responsibility of the individual to participate in the effective functioning of the principles and ideals of democracy in all areas of human activity.

PARKHURST, C. C., and BLAIS, A. A. *English for Business*. New York: Prentice Hall. 1944. 440 pp. *English for Business* has been written for the student of English preparing for a business career. The text is designed to give him adequate training in the fundamentals of effective expression for business purposes. Training in business English is fundamentally training in practical composition. Its practical aspect tends to awaken keen interest in students inclined to be apathetic toward the study of composition.

The text is a simple, practical presentation of the theory of business English. It has much illustrated material and many exercises for class and home assignments. An advanced course is presented in *Modern Business English* by Babenroth and Parkhurst.

PREBLE, DONNA. *Yamino-Kwiti*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers. 1940. 236 pp. \$2.50. Ever since the days of *Hiawatha* the picturesque Indian has been a favorite type for writers. In *Yamino-Kwiti* the reader meets Indians of southern California who are different from any Indians yet introduced into children's stories. Donna Preble has so closely studied their history and customs, their handicrafts, and their native haunts, that the noted anthropologist, Alfred L. Kroeber, has written a brief foreword commending the book for its authenticity. Yamino-Kwiti is a young Indian lad who dreams of becoming a courier, to run from settlement to settlement seeing the broad and mysterious world beyond his home camp. But his elders have set him aside to become a priest. The everyday adventures of the Indian life come to him, but he is eager for greater exploits. And at last his wish is realized when he becomes a guide and interpreter for the strange white men.

REYNOLDS, LARRY. *I Feel Like a Cad*. New York: Robert M. McBride. 1944. 80 pp. \$1.00. Readers of *Collier's Weekly* have chuckled over Butch's burglary behavior for nearly eight years and the increasingly insistent demand for a collection of these cartoons has made this selection almost imperative. Sentimental, boyish, bumbling, Butch burgles with consideration, always keeping the interest of his victims foremost in his mind. He believes in pilfering politely. This is very irritating to Slug, his wizened partner, who wants to get on with his work. Everyone who likes to laugh will enjoy this little book.

SAVIDGE, A. L., and HORN, GUNNAR. *Handbook for High School Journalism*. Boston: D. C. Heath. 1944. 133 pp. \$1.50. This is a syllabus for high-school journalism, mostly in outline form. It treats upon headlines, makeup, style, proofreading, and estimating copy. It will not only serve as a course in journalism, but it will also be helpful for editorial staffs working on high-school publications.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH, and SMITH, R. R. *Fundamental Mathematics*. Yonkers-on-the-Hudson: World Book Company. 1944. Book I 382 pp. \$1.00; Book II 416 pp. \$1.08. This new series of mathematics for the upper grades or junior high school endeavors to develop mathematical sense—insight and power to reason. Their objectives are in accord with the recent report of the Committee on Mathematics of the U. S. Office of Education and the Civilian Pre-Induction Training Branch of the Army. The final goal is the ability to solve real problems when they appear. New principles and processes are developed and extended in close association with known, concrete situations. They stem from and are summaries of meaningful number situations. Beyond the meaning of specific facts and processes, the pupils are led to broader concepts of underlying mathematical principles. They are oriented and guided in their study so that they may have an appreciation of the role of mathematics in civilization as well as an understanding of how it may be used in their own work.

A maintenance program in the fundamentals includes careful reteaching of meanings and processes in fractions and decimals. A diagnostic-remedial program is given in whole numbers, fractions, and decimals to provide for the pupils' individual differences. For the new topics of these grades, such as per cents, the mastery of computational skills is linked with the careful development of meanings.

The books are primarily applied arithmetic—the arithmetic of the modern consumer, which has everyday application in the intelligent citizen's personal affairs. The authors apply mathematics to fresh, stimulating problems in varied fields of activity. Many of them are concerned with the everyday interests of students in schools, home, and recreational activities.

SHIELDS, H. G., and WILSON, W. H. *Consumer Economic Problems*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co. 1945. 760 pp. \$1.88. This book is the outgrowth of two previous editions that have been used for more than ten years. The content and the emphasis have been brought up to date in terms of the latest thinking and research in this field. The content harmonizes with the majority of city and state courses of study. It is designed for a course that is often referred to as the new type of economic education. This volume contains enough material for a full year of work by covering all the chapters and by using the problems and projects generously. It can be used for a one-semester course by using fewer of the problems and projects, or by omitting certain chapters that may have had sufficient emphasis in other courses. Suggested syllabi are furnished on request.

SMITH, E. R., EDMAN, MARION, and MILLER, G. E. *Invitation to Reading*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1944. 534 pp. \$1.72. This book has been expressly designed for those junior high school pupils who do not find enjoyment or inspiration in tradi-

tional literary content. This does not mean that literary quality must give way to the shoddy or the second-rate. Rather, it means that many pieces of good writing which are traditional in the junior high school are replaced by other pieces of good writing that come closer to the interests, reading abilities, and intellectual capacities of the book-shy adolescent. The single aim of this book is to challenge pupils who experience more than the usual amount of difficulty in reading to understand themselves and the complex world in which they live. Reading, if it is to have desirable personal and social significance for these pupils, must be a *pleasurable* experience. The stories, plays, poems, articles, and essays are easy to read; they are simple, direct, and full of action; they are interesting and exciting and yet they are emotionally satisfying and intellectually stimulating. And they represent good literature, superior craftsmanship, even though the vocabulary is below the range of average reading ability.

STIEFF, F. P. *Unleash the Dogs of War*. New York: Robert M. McBride. 1944. 227 pp. \$2.50. The title of this book is to be taken literally. It is the story of dogs at war, of two valiant, four-footed fighters who were recruited from private life and fought courageously in the North African campaign. Their adventures are as inspiring as those of the soldiers with whom they attacked and defeated the arms of General Von Arnheim. Murky and Cecil took the basic training given at Front Royal, Virginia, where they were transformed from favorite pets to animals of defense and defiance. Here hundreds of dogs of various breeds are taught to serve with our fighting forces throughout the world as scouts, and as front-line combatants. From this camp in which Murky and Cecil trained, came the dog named Chips, who captured a machine-gun nest and was awarded the Silver Star, as well as the dogs that patrol our miles of coastline, and nameless hundreds of canine heroes.

Imbued with the high ideals of Front Royal, and inspired by the prowess of the other dogs who trained there, Murky and Cecil set out with many of their fellows in a convoy bound for North Africa. What happens thereafter is a story unique in the annals of war.

TREGASKIS, RICHARD. *Invasion Diary*. New York: Random House. 1944. 245 pp. \$2.75. Out of the author's rich, first-hand experience in the modern theater of war comes *Invasion Diary*. It is a straight, unadorned account of what Tregaskis saw and felt and shared with our fighting men. His book brings home with startling impact the actual conditions under which the American soldier is carrying the war into Europe; it gives an insight into the difference between German and Japanese soldiers; and reveals from personal experience the physical and psychological reactions of our wounded.

TURNER, W. J. *A Panorama of Rural England*. New York: Hastings House. 1944. 316 pp. \$5.00. A group of six distinguished authorities have contributed to this interesting book about the enduring charm of rural England. Those quaint little towns from which the adventurous sailor has embarked for distant ports, the famous formal gardens of Oxford or Hampton, or the equally famous casual garden before some obscure cottages in the Cotswolds and the quaint atmosphere of country inns redolent with ale and memories—they are all here in this book. The book contains 48 full-page color plates and 132 black and white illustrations of remarkable beauty.

WILLIAMS, BERYL. *Fashion is Our Business*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. 1945. 205 pp. \$2.00. This author admits frankly that clothes are and should be a fascinating and absorbing subject to a girl. To be beautifully, suitably, and becomingly dressed is every woman's business. With this idea in mind, the author talked to twelve leading American fashion designers, to learn from them how they fashioned careers for themselves out of their own fascination with clothes—and just how they create the original

and lovely styles for which they are famous. Their stories, told here, make exciting reading. In addition they show American girls what good clothes are, and how simple it is to be well-dressed once that is understood. This is a splendid career book, full of suggestions for the girl who feels drawn to the great world of clothes and designing. Every one of the designers included has a vital, imaginative personality. The stories are full of variety in background, training, and achievement.

PAMPHLETS, WORKBOOKS, AND OTHER MATERIALS:

African Achievement. New York 20: British Information Services. 1945. 24 pp. Free. Discusses building tomorrow in British West Africa. Other pamphlets include *First Blows*, *John Britain versus Japan*, *The British Commonwealth and Empire*, *British Commonwealth Folder*, and *India, Progress in Government*. Also illustrated folders: *The Royal Navy*, *The British Army*, *The British Fleet Air Arm*, *The Royal Air Force*, and *Famous Names in Wartime Britain*. The British Information Service also has an exceedingly interesting, illustrated monthly magazine entitled *Britain*; subscription price \$1.00 a year.

American Education in Transition. New York: The New York Times. 1945. 40 pp. Three problems—"Conflicting Beliefs in American Education," "Paying for Public Education," and "The School and the Community"—discussed at three forums at the New York Times Hall on January 9 and 23 and February 8, 1945.

Annual Report of the Columbia Broadcasting System. New York: CBS, 485 Madison Avenue. 1945. 34 pp. Free. Relates many of the things the network did during 1944.

The Australian Army at War. New York 20: Australian News and Information Bureau, 610-5th Avenue. 1945. 64 pp. A brief summary of what this army has done since the outbreak of war on September 3, 1939. Illustrated.

BETTS, E. A., and T. M. *An Index to Professional Literature on Reading and Related Topics*. New York: American Book Co. 1945. 137 pp. \$1.50. An index of 8,278 references on reading and study together with seven pages of Topical Index related to the bibliography. This topical index has classified the references under 163 headings.

BETTS, E. A. *Visual and Auditory Discrimination*. Reprinted from *Optometric Weekly*. 1944. 12 pp. 60c. The author discusses the development of word functions through skill in visual and auditory discrimination. Methods improving these skills are listed and described. Copies of this reprint, as well as of others on reading, may be obtained by writing to the Reading Clinic Secretary, Room 8, Burrowes Education Building, The Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania. Checks should be made payable to E. A. Betts.

The Black and White of Rejections for Military Service. Montgomery, Alabama: The American Teachers Association, Box 271. 1944. 51 pp. Free. A study of rejections of Selective Service registrants, by race, on account of educational and mental deficiencies.

BRAISTED, P. J. *Cultural Co-operation*. Haddam, Connecticut: The Edward W. Hazen Foundation. 1944. 32 pp. 10c. Discusses what cultural co-operation is, what has been done, what motions and attitudes must be reoriented, and

what obstacles must be surmounted, and what urgent tasks must be undertaken.

BUELL, M. H., and SCHULER, F. W. *Physics Workbook*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Co. 1944. 378 pp. \$1.12. A pupil workbook that can be used with any high-school text. Problems have specific page references to ten texts commonly used in high schools. The book is divided into eleven units. Each unit has a preview, a group of problems in the form of experiments, a list of suggested activities, and a student self-test. A separate booklet of unit tests, each in perforated form, accompanies the work book.

Compulsory Peacetime Military Training. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1945. 15 pp. 10c. A statement of the Educational Policies Commission's views on compulsory military training prepared by a sub-committee. The commission believes that it would be most unwise to commit the nation at this time to a year of compulsory peacetime military service.

Democratic Living in Farm Families. Los Angeles 14: The American Institute of Family Relations. March, 1945. Vol. 5, No. 3. 8 pp. A monthly service bulletin on family relations.

Dietetics as a Profession. Chicago, 11: The American Dietetic Association. 1944. 35 pp. An excellent analysis of the profession through a study of which students will be assisted in deciding if they have the qualifications needed for success in the field of dietetics. An excellent survey of the field covering what the dietitian does, where she is employed, how she obtains a position, what the conditions of work are, and what remuneration can be expected.

DRENNAN, C. M. "*HSC*" *High-Speed Brake Equipment for Types A, B, and C Diesel Locomotive Units and Cars with Individual Speed Governor Control*. Chicago: American Technical Society. 1945. 68 pp. plus 42 diagrams. \$3.00. A practical textbook for the instruction of locomotive engineers and firemen. Many of the diagrams are large, extended page drawings.

DUGGAN, STEPHAN. *The German Problem*. New York 19. Institute of International Education. 1944. 14 pp. Discusses "Education in Postwar Germany," "Should Germany be Partitioned," and "American Activities in International Education."

Education for the Air Age. New York 17: Air-Age Education Research. 1944. 16 pp. Free. Discusses the future of aviation and its effect upon people. Also contains a list of material now available from the Air-Age Education Research. A bulletin for teacher and school administrators.

Educational Opportunities in the Providence Public Schools. Providence, Rhode Island: Department of Public Schools, 1945. 48 pp. An illustrated booklet describing the educational opportunities provided by the Providence public schools for returning service men and women, for released civilian war workers, and all other adults desiring further educational training. More than 100 courses described.

Extent of Schooling of the American People. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1944. 16 pp. 15c. Presents data from the 1940 census on the educational status of age groups within the total population. A second study in this series, *Extent of Schooling of the Rural-Farm Population and the Urban Population*. (1944. 16 pp. 15c.) presents detailed comparisons also based upon the 1940 census.

- Federal-State Relations in Education.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education and the Educational Policies Commission. 1945. 47 pp. 25c. A summarization of the thinking of these two agencies on this important issue—the relations which should exist between the Federal government and public school systems at the elementary and the secondary level.
- Flying Bombs.* New York 20: British Information Services. 1944. 24 pp. Free. The story of the flying bombs, their destructive effect, how they are combatted, and rebuilding after the destruction.
- Free Teaching Materials in the Field of Social Studies for the Secondary Schools.* Boston: The New Haven Railroad, Room 493, South Station. 1944. 12 pp. Free. Contains descriptions of materials on railroad transportation available free on loan and for permanent possession. Also one available for the elementary grades.
- Fund and Bank.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Treasury. 1945. 16 pp. Free. Ten questions and answers on the Bretton Woods proposals for dealing with postwar international monetary and financial problems.
- Graduate Research in Education and Abstracts of Doctoral Dissertations in Education.* Lawrence: Univ. of Kansas, 103 Fraser Hall. 1944. 31 pp. Free. A list of the doctoral dissertations and masters' theses in education finished and accepted by the faculty of the University of Kansas from January 1, 1940 to January 1, 1944. Also includes brief abstracts of six doctoral dissertations.
- GRAF, J. R. *Invasion Leaders.* Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co. 1944. 39 pp. 50c. The biographies of ten American military leaders (Eisenhower, MacArthur, Marshall, Arnold, Bradley, Clark, Doolittle, McNair, Sommerell, and Chennault) in the European and Asiatic theatres of war.
- GRAJDANZEV, A. J. *Korea Looks Ahead.* New York 22: American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, Inc. 1944. 64 pp. 25c. After being forgotten for forty years, Korea has come back into the international limelight with the Cairo Declaration promising that Korea would achieve her independence "in due course." This pamphlet explains in interesting, quickly-readable style the past and future problems of Korean independence, the Chinese and Russian attitudes; Chinese, Japanese, and Western influences on Korea, and the effect of the missionary movement. It vividly describes Korea's people, customs, home life, education, religious, economy, agriculture, industry, and industrial possibilities.
- GREEN, DANIEL. *Drawing for Life and Industry.* Milwaukee 1: Bruce Publishing Co. 1945. 181 pp. \$1.56. A workbook of projects from actual life problems with descriptive material for instruction in drafting.
- Growing More Trees.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Forest Products Industries, Inc. 1944. 8 pp. Free. Pictorial and text presentation of our forest problems. A catalogue of all the material available through this organization is available upon request.
- Handbook of Cumulative Records.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1945. 104 pp. 20c. A report of the National Committee on Cumulative Records together with a nation-wide survey by the U. S. Office of Education of the types of cumulative record systems used in the elementary and secondary schools of the nation.

- HASWELL, E. B. *The Mental Ward Becomes a Studio*. Cincinnati: Proctor and Gamble. 1944. 24 pp. Free. A report by the author on an experimental class in soap sculpture for mental patients in a hospital. Also shows pictures of some of the work done by these persons.
- HENNE, FRANCES, and PRITCHARD, MARGARET. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Home Economics*. Chicago. American Library Association. 1945. 72 pp. 75c. The story of some of the ways in which these persons and the students of the University of Chicago High School work together. Also included in this series are: *The Librarian and the Teacher of English*, *The Librarian and the Teacher of Science*, and *The Librarian and the Teacher of Music*, available for 75 cents each.
- IVOK, LEO. *How to Prepare the Schedule for a Secondary School*. Cambridge: Graduate School of Education, Harvard Univ. 1944. 26 pp. 75c. A detailed, step by step explanation of how to make a daily schedule for classes in a secondary school. While based on a small, secondary school, the essential elements are applicable to any secondary school.
- LATTIMORE, E. H. *Labor Unions in the Far East*. New York: American Council. Institute of Pacific Relations. 1945. 56 pp. 10c. Discusses how the working people of the Orient fight "cheap labor" standards.
- Listen*. New York: Columbia Broadcasting Co. 1945. 38 pp. Free. Interesting facts about this great business of broadcasting.
- MATHER, K. F., GRUNDFEST, HARRY, and PHILLIPS, MELBER. *The Future of American Science*. New York 23: United Office and Professional Workers of America. 1944. 20 pp. 2c. The authors advocate proposals based on President Roosevelt's four major questions on the role of science in postwar America.
- McCONNELL, BEATRICE. *Child Labor and Youth Employment in This Nation's Third Year of War*. Washington, D. C.: Children's Bureau, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1944. 15 pp. A reprint from *Social Service Review* of a report of the Children's Bureau for the year ending June 30, 1944.
- McWILLIAMS, CAREY. *Small Farm and Big Farms*. New York 20: Public Affairs Committee. 1945. 32 pp. 10c. This pamphlet shows how agricultural activities the canners, the power companies, the fertilizer companies, the banks, the farm equipment manufacturers, and the transportation companies. "This process," Mr. McWilliams asserts, "is creating a widening economic and social gap between large and small farmers, or more accurately, between commercial farming as a business and farming as a way of life. But our main concern should not be to preserve any one type of farm, for no one type has a monopoly of economic or social efficiencies. . . . What is important is not the size of the farm, but what happens to the people who work the land. It is absolutely essential," the pamphlet concludes, "that interest-groups be democratically organized in associations that speak honestly for the interests they are supposed to represent."
- MURRAY, PHILIP. *Re-Employment*. Washington, D. C.: CIO Department of Research and Education, 718 Jackson Place. 1944. 32 pp. 15c. A pamphlet which defines the deflationary gap, examines the dangers therein to the

nation's security and to democracy, and sets forth seven points enunciating how the deflationary gap can be filled and its dangers obviated.

A Nutrition Guide. Minneapolis 15, Minn.: General Mills, Inc. 1945. 20 pp. Free. The story of the essential nutrition that the body needs told through pictures and diagrams as well as through text material.

Planning for Postwar Education. Philadelphia: Public School System. 1944. 34 pp. An expression of thinking by a representative group of Philadelphia teachers and principals about conditions that are likely to be found in the postwar years and also some of the steps that should be taken to meet these conditions.

The Picture Story of Steel. New York: American Iron and Steel Institute. 350 Fifth Avenue. 48 pp. Free. The story of steel from ore to finished product. Illustrated.

PINK, L. H. *The Story of Blue Cross.* New York 20: Public Affairs Committee. 1945. 31 pp. 10c. The story of the need for medical care, what the Blue Cross does and how it has expanded from half a million to 17 million subscribers in the last eight years.

Proceedings of the Twenty-first Annual Educational Conference and the Tenth Meeting of the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Lexington: Bureau of School Service, Univ. of Kentucky. 1944. 177 pp. 50c. Includes discussions on "Postwar Planning for Elementary and Secondary Schools," "Higher Education in the Postwar Period," "What the Schools Can Learn From the Educational Programs of the Armed Forces" and other related topics.

Publications of the Association of American Railroads, Washington, D. C.
Changes Proposed in the Railroad Retirement and Unemployment Insurance Systems. 1945. 39 pp. Free. Discusses bills S293 and H. R. 1362 now in Congress and presents reasons why the bill should not be passed.
How Should Railroad Freight Rates Be Made? 1944. 47 pp. Free. Presents views of government officials, shippers, railroad men, and the press on this much discussed subject.

Railway Literature. 1945. 40 pp. Free. A bibliography of many of the best books and stories on the subjects of railroads and railway travel. Books are classified under children, juvenile, and general. Other divisions include model railroading and railway statistics. A list of periodicals containing articles on railroads is also included. Teachers and pupils working on a unit on transportation will find this very helpful in locating source material.
Teachers Aid Kit. This kit is composed of two booklets and fifty-seven pictures. The *Teacher Manual* (50 pp.) contains suggestions, outlines, and bibliographical aids. This book contains an extensive outline of suggestions and work procedures for study units on transportation. While prepared for the elementary-school levels, it is equally adaptable for use on the high-school level. Another section is devoted to facts about railroads while a third section provides an extensive bibliography of source materials for use in the preparation and study of the unit. The other book, *The Stories Behind the Pictures* (68 pp.) contains a story and a quiz for each of the fifty-seven pictures which are included with the kit. The pictures tell the story of transportation and may be mounted for classroom use or poster exhibits and

similar displays. The picture are 8½ by 11 in. in size and are printed on heavy durable paper.

Publications of Choral Octavos available through the Hall and McCreary Co.

434 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago:

Billson, Ada. *Christ Today*. No. 1614. 6 pp. 16c. For mixed voices.

Morgan, Haydn. *Ours Is the World*. No. 2080. 6 pp. 16c. For treble voices.

Olds, W. B. *Morning Song*. No. 2078. 10 pp. 18c. For treble voices.

Rodgers, J. E. *Hear Us, O Lord*. No. 1622. 4 pp. 16c. For mixed voices.

Publications of the National Broadcasting Company, New York. The publications cover the "University of the Air" program for the school year 1944-1945. These include *The World's Great Novels*, (Literature Series, 45 pp.) *We Came This Way* (Historical Series, 48 pp.); Music of the New World (including "Folkways in Music," 47 pp. and "Music in American Cities," 71 pp.); *American Story* (58 pp.); and *Lands of the Free* ("Development of Ideas in the Americas," 48 pp.)

Publications of the Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C. The Union has prepared a series of twenty pamphlets (each 16 pages) relating to South American countries. These pamphlets are illustrated and are most attractive reading to high-school youth. The complete set of twenty is available for \$1.00; individually they are five cents each. The following are the titles of this group:

Jose de San Martin	The Araucanians
The Pan American Highway	The Panama Canal
The Guano Islands of Peru	Francisco Pizarro
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The Pan American Union	The Snake Farm
Five Birds of Latin America	Simon Bolivar
The Pan American Sanitary Bureau	The Aztec People
Jose Gervasio Artigas	Hernan Cortes
Colonial Cities of Spanish America	The Amazon River
Transportation in the Other Americas	Jose Marti

Publications available free through the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, Room 1626, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Fluid Catalyst. 18 pp. The story of the fluid catalyst process of cracking oil—a new process perfected during the present war.

Holman, Eugene. *Oil Product and Pillar of Freedom*. (14 pp.) Discusses its importance, use, the demand for it, available supply, and other interesting facts.

Howard, F. A. *The Future of Industrial Research*. (16 pp.) A summary of papers presented at the company's Silver Anniversary Forum.

Midgley, Thomas. *The Future of Industrial Research*. (20 pp.) Discusses industrial research and points out the need for its continuation and expansion.

Oil for the World. (16 pp.) Discusses what should be the oil policy for the world.

Patterson, R. P. *Industrial Research and National Defense*. (16 pp.) The author's thesis is that the future of our country is to a great extent in the hands of our scientists.

Blockbusters from Oil. (16 pp.) The story (in picture form) of synthetic toluene, secretly developed source of the TNT that blasts America's foes

REEVE, JULIET, STOWE, F. E., and WARDLAW, A. W. *Sourcebook on Peace time Conscription.* Philadelphia 7: American Friends Service Committee. 1944. 52 pp. 25c. Valuable source material for the busy person who wants to be up to date in his information on this major issue.

Religion and Public Education. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1945. 76 pp. 75c. Proceedings of a conference, containing papers presented and brief summaries of the discussion.

Release of New Erpi Classroom Films by Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Ill. The company announces the release of seven new films which can be advantageously used for instruction in junior and senior high-school courses. These are *The Atmosphere and Its Circulation*, *Care of Pets*, *Colombia and Venezuela*, *Principles of Home Canning*, *Housing in America*, *The Teeth*, and *Waterf Birds*.

ROCKEFELLER, JR., J. D. *The Christian Church, What of Its Future.* New York 18: The Protestant Council, 19 West 44th St. 1945. 13 pp. Free. An address at a dinner given by the Protestant Council to launch a wide program of service to Church and community by the Council and its six constituent organizations.

Salaries of City School Employees, 1944-45. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division of the National Education Association. 1945. 24 pp. 25c. Biennially since 1922-23, the Research Division of the National Education Association has conducted surveys of the salaries paid in city school systems. This publication covers the school year 1944-45.

SAMPSON, J. C. and WEINGARTNER, C. L. *Basic Electricity, Book I.* Atlanta, Georgia: Allen, James, and Co. 1944. 108 pp. \$1.25. Includes a test booklet of twenty-two pages containing eighteen diagnostic tests—three for each of the six units in the text. A film—correlated manual for the study of electricity in vocational and general courses. The Jam Handy Organization of Chicago produces the kit of slide films upon which this manual is based.

Schools Libraries for Today and Tomorrow—Functions and Standards. Chicago. American Library Association. 1945. 43 pp. \$1.00. Presents qualitative and quantitative analyses of the broad areas of school library services with recommendations for their improvement and expansion.

SELF, MAURINE. *A Study of the Aims for Teaching Literature in Theory and in Practice.* Urbana: Illinois Association of Teachers of English. 1945. 28 pp. 15c. Using the aims as set forth in the writings from 1917 to 1943 of various leaders in the field of English, the author examines the 1942 and 1943 volumes of the *English Journal* to ascertain to what extent these aims were being put into practice as well as how they are doing it.

Soldiers' Plan for Farming After They Leave the Army. Report No. B-131. Washington, D. C.: Information and Education Division Headquarters, Army Service Forces. 1944. 52 pp. One of the series on *Post-War Plans of the Soldier*. The others in the series include: *Post War Migration Plans of Soldiers*, B-128; *Post-War Occupational Plan of Soldiers*, B-129 *Soldiers' Plans to*

Own Businesses, B-130; *Soldiers' Plans for Government Jobs*, B-132; and *Post War Educational Plans of Soldiers*, B-133.

STEWART, M. S. *What Foreign Trade Means to You*. New York 20: Public Affairs Committee. 1945. 32 pp. 10c. The author shows the necessity for foreign trade in our postwar economy.

Summary of Activities. Washington, D. C.: Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs. 1944. 35 pp. Describes many of the office's activities.

SWING, R. G. *Want or Well-Being?* Washington 6, D. C.: Food for Freedom, Inc. 1945. 16 pp. 10c. An analysis of why the United Nations propose a Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), with twelve questions concerning such an organization answered.

TOSER, M. A. *Library Manual*. Chicago: H. W. Wilson Co. 1944. 92 pp. 70c. Re-written throughout, with new illustrations and some changes in format, this new edition aims to give high-school students the essentials of a course in the use of books and libraries, in twelve brief lessons, using the student's observation, activity, and interest as far as possible. Exercises are given as a part of each unit. An objective quiz for each of the twelve lessons and a final examination accompany each manual. They are in an envelope placed inside the back cover of the book. They can be collected and retained by the instructor until the students are ready for them.

TOWSEND, W. S. *Full Employment and the Negro Worker*. Washington 6, D. C.: National CIO Committee, 718 Jackson Place, N. W. 1945. 10 pp. Discusses what is happening in the way of abolishing racial discrimination.

The United Nations, Peoples, and Countries. New York 20: United Nations Information Office. 1944. 47 pp. A brief discussion of 36 of these countries—giving geographic, economic, physical, and political facts.

The United Nations, Today and Tomorrow. New York 20: The United Nations Information Office. 1944. 46 pp. Tells who are the United Nations, listing each and showing when each entered the war or severed diplomatic relations with the seven axis powers. Other chapters treat on "Fore-runners of the United Nations," "How the United Nations Came Into Being," "How the United Nations Co-operate in War" and "How the United Nations Co-operate for Peace." Also contains "The Atlantic Charter," the "Declaration of Four Nations on General Security," the "Joint Four-Nation Declaration," and the "United Nations Declaration."

Victory for Freedom. New York 20: National Association of Manufacturers of the USA. 1944. 16 pp. A program adopted by the War and Reconstruction Congress of American Industry.

Voks. Moscow, Russia: Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. Vladimir Kemenov, editor-in-chief. 1944. Numbers 2 and 3. 88 pp. A series of war stories and historical studies of the Battle of the Ukraine. These stories are a true-to-life account of Nazi atrocities committed against the Russians as told by writers within the country.

WALKER, J. G., BARTELS, N. F. and MARYE, M. E. *Adventures Wise and Otherwise*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1945. 248 pp. 75c. This work-book is divided into nine units and two review units. For use with high-

school freshmen, this book provides the pupil with drill material for establishing valuable habits and skills of expression. Each exercise is carefully planned to cover the subject under consideration. Pupils tear out the exercise page, do the work and check it and then keep the book in the classroom. An envelope of mastery tests—one for each unit—accompanies each book. A key to check the mastery tests may be secured from the publishers by the teacher.

Watchmakers' Handbook. Waltham, Mass.: Waltham Watch Co. 35 pp. The story of watchmaking dealing briefly with some of the mechanical improvements in the construction of Waltham watch movements.

Whitechester, England, A Town at War. New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, 1945, 40 pp. An intimate picture of how "Whitechester" citizens contribute to the war effort.

WOODY, CLIFFORD, Editor. *Adjustments in Education to Meet War and Post-war Needs.* Ann Arbor, Michigan: The Ann Arbor Press. 1944. 94 pp. \$1.50. A series of six papers which were prepared by representative committees, selected from various areas of study in the field of education for presentation and discussion at the 1943 annual meeting of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. The fields in college education covered are philosophy of education, history of education, educational psychology, educational sociology, guidance, and educational administration and supervision.

World Freedom of Press and Radio. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1944. 34 pp. Editorial submitted to the committee on foreign affairs of the House of Representatives of the United States, Seventy-Eighth Congress, Second Session, favoring world freedom of information and of communications.

YAHRAES, HERBERT. *Epilepsy—The Ghost is Out of the Closet.* New York 20: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. 1944. 32 pp. 10c. This booklet describes the disease, tells what causes it, how it is recognized, and how it can be treated medically, but the most significant sections are the ones on how the epileptic should be treated by society.

Your Service Rights and Benefits. New York: Bristol-Myers Co. 1945. 33 pp. A handbook for service men and women and their families in which are a digest of the many Federal laws and regulations including the GI bill covering their rights and benefits.

ZEMURRAY, SAMUEL, and TERRY, JOHN. *New Crops for the New World.* New York 21: The Middle America Information Bureau. Station Y, Box 93. 1945. 6 pp. A reprint from the *Atlantic Monthly* of the dramatic story of crop migration,—an authoritative account of Middle America's economic lifeline to the Allies.

ZIMAND, G. F. *Child Manpower After Three Years of War.* New York 16: National Child Labor Committee. 1944. 12 pp. A summary of the annual report for the year ending September 30, 1944.

ADDITIONAL LISTINGS RECEIVED TOO LATE FOR CLASSIFICATION:

BROWN, F. J., and ROUCEK, J. S. Editors. *One America.* New York: Prentice-Hall. 1945. 717 pp. \$3.75. The history, contributions, and present problems of

our social and national minorities, a revision of a former volume entitled, *Our Racial and National Minorities* published in 1937. The authors in this revision have given serious consideration to the many questions arising out of the changed conditions largely concomitants of the last five years during which time men and nations have been pitted against one another in a life and death struggle. The editors and the individual contributors have brought the material of their chapters up to date and in several instances have entirely rewritten them. Some chapters have been eliminated or combined with others. Several of the chapters have been written by contributors other than those to the original edition and are entirely new. Despite these additions, the entire volume has been substantially shortened. Every effort has been made to avoid "dating" the book or viewing the material from the temporary and artificial viewpoint of war. The problems of minorities are as old as tribal conquests; they will persist in the future.

BURNETT, WHIT. Editor. *Time To Be Young*. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1945. 440 pp. \$3.00. Here is an affectionate selection of some fifty stories—fictional and true—to make a book of childhood and early youth whose readers will be both young and old. Some of the contributors are no longer young in years; others, such as Havelock Ellis, Sherwood Anderson, Marcel Proust have left the scene; some are still at the beginning of their careers. But each has captured a moment on the sunny side of maturity with a quick and deep emotion; and this quality of honest youngness was the essential test for inclusion in this volume. This is a book to read and read again with laughter and tears and perhaps nostalgia. Young readers, or old, will find here no surface trickiness, but rather illuminated revelations of themselves as they are—or were.

CHENEY, FRANCES. *Universal Military Training*. Washington, D. C.: The Library of Congress, General Reference and Bibliography Division. 1945. 148 pp. Free to libraries. Mimeographed, 8½ in. by 11 in. This book has been prepared by a sociologist for the primary purpose of presenting a body of current opinion and of reflecting current attitudes toward a subject that is of much concern to leaders in government, in education, and in religious and business circles. While not inclusive, this annotated bibliography does contain 317 references to Federal documents, books, and articles appearing mostly between January, 1942, and March, 1945. The references are classified under eight broad classifications. The annotations are intended to identify the authors and to summarize rather than to evaluate the content of the books and articles.

CHRISTOFFERSON, H. C. and others. *Demonstrations and Laboratory Experiences in the Science of Aeronautics*. New York: McGraw-Hill. 1945. 155 pp. \$2.00. Prepaid with the co-operation of the Civil Aeronautics Administration and the American Council on Education, this book offers real help for teachers and students of aeronautics who are interested in making and using classroom demonstration apparatus and materials to illustrate the principles of aeronautics. Providing an entirely new approach to the subject, it presents experiments and demonstrations in aerodynamics, meteorology and navigation, airplane power plants, communications, and Civil Air regulations. Detailed instructions are given for making simple apparatus from non-critical materials which any student can obtain.

CLOSE, P. D. *Building Insulation*. Revised Edition. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1945. 328 pp. \$3.50. Building insulation treats of the principles and applications of insulation as used to retard heat losses and heat gains, and to guard against fire, sound, vibration, and condensation in buildings. Here is a book to serve as a reference volume for those interested in the subject of heat and sound insulation for buildings. An effort has been made to cover the subject in such a manner that it will be useful and of practical value to the architect or engineer, to the manufacturer, to the dealer, to the insulation salesman, and to the consumer who may be contemplating the construction of a new house or the remodeling of an old one. The scope of the subject matter is sufficiently broad that this book can be used in conjunction with architectural and engineering courses in colleges and universities, for the training of insulation salesmen, and by lumber and building supply dealers.

DEES, B. C. *The Fundamentals of Physics*. Philadelphia 5: The New Home Library, 1945. 486 pp. 68c. The plan of the book is as follows: First a full explanation of the basic concepts of length, mass, time, speed, velocity, force, gravitation, energy, mechanics, heat, sound, music, light, color, electricity, magnetism, electronics, quantum theory, relativity, etc. Then, sections dealing with the many practical and wonderful applications of Physics in our everyday life such as radio, television, radar, airplanes, dirigibles, telephone, telegraph, photo-electric cell, X-rays, cameras, motion pictures, phonographs, dynamos, engines, turbines, gyroscopes, etc. Many illustrations, prepared under the author's direction, clarify the text and make for easy understanding. An index makes this book convenient for quick reference.

DEWEY, JOHN, and thirty-two others. *The Authoritarian Attempt to Capture Education*. New York: Columbia Univ. Press. 1945. 164 pp. \$2.50. This book is a thundering rebuttal of authoritarianism in education, written by men who cannot be ignored and who will be heard. The authors are not dogmatic. Not in all matters do they agree with one another. But of one basic axiom they are sure: all truth, whatever its origin, is established by the scientific method. No part of human experience is sacrosanct, nor is any domain of belief a special preserve to be guarded from the scrutiny of the scientist. There are those who feel that the world goes to ruin for want of moral responsibility. Their answer to this state of affairs is simple: all students must be given a thorough grounding in controlled and selected teachings of the great thinkers of the past before proceeding to their individual studies. Furthermore, they must accept those teachings—blindly, if necessary. To those who uphold the scientific spirit this is anathema. Not only is it contrary to our democratic traditions and the scientific spirit, it is an echo of the large voice of reaction. The struggle over democratic education continues and will continue. Our generation is called on to make great decisions. If we can pave the way for the education of free men we may help to build a free world.

ENGLE, T. L. *Psychology: Principles and Applications*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Company. 1945. 549 pp. \$2.12. In surveys of American high-school curriculums there has been increasing recognition of the value of a course in psychology and its applications. Students need a better, more objective point of view on human behavior: they need help in understanding themselves. Sound guidance in human living may well mean as much to them in later life as a knowledge of history, mathematics, or science.

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GAVIAN, R. W., and HAMM, W. A. *The American Story*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1945. 664 pp. The postwar policy of the National Council for the Social Studies. (The Social Studies Look Beyond the War, November, 1944) "the history and achievements of the nation and of the traditions and ideals which they must foster and extend." The Council also emphasizes the need for "knowledge and understanding of the conditions, problems, and issues on which policies are being formed." The Council further recommends explicit attention to the great figures in our history, to the *story* of American democracy, to dramatic key episodes, and to major developments in our growth. Here is a book written to further these objectives, a text to acquaint high-school students with the whole dramatic sweep of America's story. It is the story of how the American people lived, what they thought, how they worked to launch a national government, how they struggled to realize the American dream of equal opportunity for all. It is concerned with American ideals, American love of country, and with the great services of outstanding statesmen and reformers, leading characters in a drama of absorbing interest.

KANDEL, I. L. Editor. *Post-War Educational Reconstruction in the United Nations*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1944. 360 pp. \$3.70. The Twenty-First Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. This volume is of special interest and importance now when the attention of all thoughtful students is directed to the future of education and to the prospects of a reorientation based on the ideals for which the war is being fought. The havoc wrought by the totalitarian aggressors on educational systems of occupied countries is described; the needs and problems that confront each of the countries are discussed; and the program for reconstruction in the years following the victory of the United Nations is presented. The volume contains articles on these countries: Australia, Belgium, Canada, China, Czechoslovakia, England, France, Greece, Italy, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Scotland, The Union of South Africa, and the United States.

MASON, J. D., and O'BRIEN, G. E. *A Practical Reader for Adults*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1945. 167 pp. 84c. Book Two of *A Practical Reader for Adults* has been written for intermediate classes of illiterate adults, for men and women who have had no education in their own language but who have acquired a simple reading vocabulary, such as is contained in Book One of this series. Because they have been in this country for some time, the majority of these men and women are able to speak and to understand a limited amount of English. Their special need is reading and writing. The materials and methods of this book, however, are such as to recommend it for use also with pupils of age-level 12-16 who are seriously retarded in reading. Teachers

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- NEUMANN, DAISY. *Now That April's There*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. 1945. 244 pp. \$2.50. In a time of vast, brutal migrations, there was one of a quite different character—small and guided by kindness—which has recently had but little notice. England's children sent here for safety of limb and mind are now returning home. For nearly five years they lived an American childhood; and five years is a long time in a young life. What are they finding when they go back? What do they feel? Are they glad to be home, sorry to leave their foster-parents, or muddled in their emotions? And what do their own parents think about the strange upbringing we have given them? *Now That April's There* answers these poignant questions through this thoroughly delightful story of Wincy and Angus, who return to England to present their puzzled parents with a whole new set of ideas and deportment, and to inject into the quiet atmosphere of Oxford what the conservatives deemed nothing short of a revolution. The children, who find their old home incomprehensible, dreary and only faintly familiar, are gradually led back to an affection and an understanding all the richer for their American experience. For fifteen-year-old Wincy is determined to have and to keep the best of both worlds.

- ROGERS, L. B., ADAMS, FAY, and BROWN, WALKER. *Story of Nations*. New York: Henry Holt and Co. 1945 revised. 863 pp. \$2.00. The teaching of world history in secondary schools has changed greatly in the last quarter-century. The change consisted mainly in boiling down a two-year course in ancient, medieval, and modern European history into a survey of civilization suitable for a one-year course. In the last few years this course itself has undergone great changes. These recent changes relate to content and emphasis. World history is no longer concerned with Europe alone. Lives in Europe, in Asia, in Africa, in Australia, and in all the Americas have become inextricably interlaced. The interdependence of all peoples in all nations is now obvious. World history has had to become a history of the world. Recognizing the profound truth that the roots of the present lie deep in the past, emphasizing the contributions of unique cultural groups to the rise of civilization, and more than ever stressing the importance of geographic controls upon the world's variegated life, the authors of *Story of Nations* have recast their book in the realistic mold of the nineteen forties. This is the world in which our students now live. Their future and the freedom of mankind must be based on their realistic understanding of this world—on their understanding of how it came about, the condition it is in, and what it might become.

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- SEYBOLD, GENEVA. *American Foundations and Their Fields*. Volume V. New York: Raymond Rich Associates, 330 W. Forty-second St. 1942. 274 pp. A listing and description of foundations disbursing to outside agencies a mini-

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num of \$1500 during the calendar year 1940 or the foundation's fiscal year of 1940. Of the group of 314 included in this book, 137 or nearly 44 per cent have their office of administration in New York City.

STRAYER, G. D. Director. *Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of Boston, Massachusetts*. Boston: City of Boston Printing Department. 1944. 1127 pp. A report of a general survey of the Boston school system to determine what steps may be taken to improve the administrative and educational organization and methods and to discover whatever possibilities of savings may exist. More than thirty persons assisted the director in the survey and in writing this comprehensive report. The report is divided into eight major divisions: General Administration; Business Administration; Program of Education (3 parts); and Financing the Schools of Boston.

TRESSLER, J. C. *English in Action*. Fourth Edition. (Available in four volumes or in two volumes) Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1945. Course I, 469 pp.; Course II 466 pp.; Course III, 471 pp.; and Course IV, 469 pp. This *English in Action* series is composed of four books, one each for grades nine to twelve. They are also obtainable in two volumes. It applies the Tressler principle that every situation or pupil experience calling for communication is an opportunity for building language skills. It links language study closely with the current, day by day concerns of boys and girls. It provides for correlation with the other studies in the curriculum. It lays stress on how to live in a democracy. This Fourth Edition confines all drill on grammar, punctuation, spelling, and all general reference materials into an orderly, fully-indexed, easily used Handbook of Grammar and Usage separate from the speaking, writing, listening, and reading activities that are an integral part of modern life. Frequent cross references link the activities to the Handbook. Grammar is directed to helping pupils write and speak clearly and correctly; construct varied, effective sentences; punctuate correctly; extract thought from the printed page; become "sentence-sure." A minimum amount of diagraming is used as a means of speeding up the teaching of sentence structure and as the student's touchstone for determining the grammatical correctness of his sentences. For exercise in diagraming an alternative activity is provided. Intensifies speech training, prepares for expression, carries on normal language activities, and provides for self-appraisal.

ZIM, H. S. *Rockets and Jets*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1945. 326 pp. \$3.00. This book contains the latest facts about rockets and jet-propelled planes, explained in clear, understandable terms. The first chapters deal with the rocket idea, its origin and gradual development. The construction and operation of battle rockets are described, among them the bazooka that played such an important role in World War II. There are chapters on the V-1 robot bomb and the V-2 rocket, on antiaircraft and aerial rockets, and on rockets for meteorological use. Other chapters explain the practical aspects of jet propulsion, with detailed descriptions of the JP motor and British and American jet-propelled planes. One section deals with the rocket as a means of transportation and describes theoretical trips to other planets that may be possible in the distant future. There is information about the experimental programs and achievements of the American Rocket Society and other groups.

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